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ABSTRACT

These five papers are from a symposium that was facilitated by David C. Bjorkquist on cross-cultural human resource development (HRD) at the 1995 Academy of Human Resource Development conference. "Developing Managers for Overseas Assignments in the Pacific Rim: A Study of International HRD Issues in Singapore" (A. Ahad M. Osman-Gani, Thian-Ser Toh, Wee-Liang Tan) examines the training provided by companie in Singapore for their operations in the Asia-Pacific region and provides insight into the companies' training curriculum. "Russia and China in Transition: Implications for Human Resource Development (HRD)" (John A. Niemi, Kevin Owens) examines the transition of Russia and China from a centralized economy to a market economy against the background of prior approaches in adult education and training; implications are the incorporation of the special strengths of each culture as opposed to wholesale adoption of Western practices. "Relationships between Organizational Climate and HRD Practices: A Comparative Study of American and Chinese Firms in Taiwan" (Hsin-yi Chen, Oscar G. Mink) examines the differences in organizational climate and HRD practices in U.S. and Chinese firms in Taiwan and explores the relationship between organizational climate and HRD practices. "Decoding Cultural Knowledge: Cross-Cultural Implications for Performance Analysis" (Carol D. Hansen, Elaine I. Metzger) uses Sackman's cultural knowledge frame to organize a review of representative research; comparative differences in work definitions and rules theoretically support variance in how organizational meaning and behavior are culturally linked. "Embracing the Humanism of Africa in the Practice and Thought of Human Resource Development" (Susan A. Lynham) studies two key issues in the HRD profession: (1) HRD is at a crossroads that will demand new answers and models of organization, management, learning and leadership; and (2) there is a need to incorporate the humanistic spirit of the African people into productive organization--an endeavor that may provide insights into the first issue. (KC)

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Developing Managers for Overseas Assignments in the Pacific Rim: A Study of International HRD Issues in Singapore

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The emerging economies in the Asia-Pacific form a major arena of increasing overseas operations. Yet little is known about the international HRD programs and practices employed by companies to develop managers for the Asia-Pacific. This paper examines the training provided by companies in Singapore for their operations in the Asia-Pacific and provides an insight into the companies' training curriculum.

In today's competitive global business environment, international human resource development (HRD) programs are of significant importance for developing corporate managers (Goldstein, 1989). Organizations must start committing a higher proportion or resources behind developing managers and executives as they do training other employees. Although some companies have programs to develop global executives, most of the programs are new, and many are in the planning stage suggesting that management and executive development with a global focus is still rare (Galagan, 1990). At the point where global strategy and human resource management intersect, there is a void of knowledge and practice (Adler, 1986). According to an ILO report, one of the most important areas of research in international management is the identification and development of suitable managers for overseas assignments in different cultural settings. In regard to international HRD, Ronen (1989) concluded that the limited quantity and quality of pertinent literature was the biggest obstacle to pursuing the tasks of identifying the behavioral characteristics, developing the optimal skills and evaluating the HRD techniques for this purpose.

Increased internationalization of economic, political, and social arenas has led to greater interpersonal contact. Because a significant proportion of this contact has not been successful, international HRD, most of which is embodied in cross-cultural training has been proposed by many scholars as a means of facilitating more effective interaction (Harris & Moran, 1987, Black & Mendenhall, 1989, Trompenaars, 1993). International management development programs bring people from different subcultures together and broaden their outlook, thus providing socialization in their managerial subcultures (Hofstede, 1984). Global and cross-cultural training and career-path planning have become necessary for managers in the global corporation, regardless of their domestic or international assignments (Landis & Brislin, 1983).

Organizations find globalization difficult since the international management literature does not provide much guidance so far (Rhinesmith, 1991). Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) concluded that the available knowledge of the cognitive dynamics of international assignees' cross-cultural adaptation process is quite limited. Latham (1988) observed that interest in conducting empirical research on various issues of cross-cultural training has declined in North America since the late 1960s and 1970s. In a review of empirical literature, Black and Mendenhall (1990) examined the effectiveness of cross-cultural training relative to three outcomes: cross-cultural skill development, cross-cultural adjustment, and job performance. The review found that most empirical work was not founded on a theoretical framework. The lack of a theoretical framework has left managers with little means of deciding who would benefit most from the HRD programs, or what training and development method would be most effective, or how to best design such international HRD programs. Three types of training for successful assignment have been prescribed: pre-departure training (Tung, 1987; McEnery & DesHarnais, 1990), post-arrival training(Tung, 1987), and repatriation training (Tung, 1989; Harvey, 1989).

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With the rapid rate of economic growth and opening up of new markets in the Asia Pacific region, a great deal of attention is being focused on the management and HRD programs of large successful companies with cross-border operations in this area. In addition, the recent regionalization thrust of the Singapore government has created substantial awareness among its business organizations of the need to venture overseas. This is especially important as there appears to be a shortage of key management personnel for cross-border assignments within Asia. The growth of the newly emerging economies of China and now, Vietnam and Indonesia, has created excess demand for such professionals. The issues of international HRD are receiving increasing attention among the "emerging multinationals" of this region. But, very little is known about international HRD practices in this region (Osman-Gani, 1995). The purpose of this paper is to present the findings of the authors' study on the relative importance of training on several key factors that are crucial to companies for their managers to succeed in overseas assignments in the Asia Pacific region. In addition to identifying the profiles of international managers, the study also attempts to identify the types, effective methods and duration of such training programs. A comparative analysis was also conducted among the multinational enterprises (MNEs) and the domestic companies to identify the extent of differences in dealing with several key HRD issues.

Methodology

The study was conducted on a selected group of companies identified by the Economic Development Board (EDB) of Singapore on the basis of their overseas business operations. A survey was conducted to collect information from the CEOs/Senior Managers of 288 selected companies representing domestic companies as well as MNEs from various business sectors. A structured questionnaire was developed for the purpose of the study using the conceptual framework and theories of international business and HRD.

The draft questionnaire was pilot tested and validated in terms of content and the format by a panel consisting of faculty members of the School of Accountancy and Business, Nanyang Technological University and senior officials of the EDB, Singapore. The questionnaire was administered using local mailing and facsimile communication system. A total of 203 companies responded to the survey providing an overall response rate of 70.49%. Of all the responses, 139 questionnaires could be used effectively for data analysis. Frequency analyses, cross-tabulations and appropriate summary statistics were used in analyzing the data for this descriptive study.

Findings

Profile of Expatriate Managers. In selecting the expatriate managers, almost half(49.61%) of the companies indicated that gender did not matter, with the remainder indicating a preference for males. About 82% of the companies employed selection criteria that is a combination of experience, education, age, gender, technical knowledge, salary/benefits and language proficiency. Few (15.39%) utilized a sole criterion based on a trait or skill: experience, education, or technical knowledge. The selection criteria would be tempered by the functions the managers are expected to perform overseas, for example, a manager being assigned as a general manager would be expected to possess certain skills and competence . The functions listed by the companies are shown in Table 1 below:

Table 1. Functions to be Performed by Prospective Employees Sent Overseas

Functions	Number of Companies	Percentage of Companies
General Management	79	56.83
Production/Technical	96	69.06
Sales/Marketing	58	41.73
Financial/Accounting	43	30.94

(Some companies responded in more than one functional management areas)

As to the duration of overseas assignment, 61.02% of the companies expect their managers to stay up to two years in their overseas business and the mean duration of overseas assignments was 2.16 years.

Frequency, Duration and Providers of Training Programs. The international training programs were mostly (62.2% of the companies) conducted on an ad-hoc basis, with the rest of the companies who provide training (37.8 %) doing so on the frequencies shown in Figure 1 below.

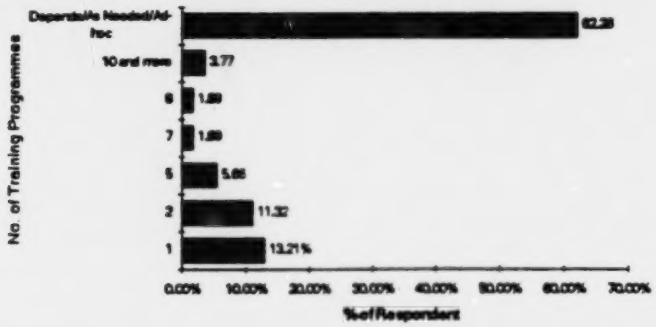

Figure 1. Number of International Training Programmes Conducted in a Year

The average duration of the training programs provided by the companies was varied; a majority (54.35%) had programs of an average duration of one to four weeks per program in a year. However, in response to a question on what should be the reasonable duration of training programs for some areas of management(referred to subsequently in this paper as the list of functional management areas) - general management; human resource; socio-cultural; accounting, finance and tax; production and technology; marketing; legal and environmental issues - the preferred duration of training varied widely with mean hours of 17.05 to 50.92 hours (ranging from 2 to 1000 man-hours per person).

The training programs were provided by external consulting organizations (38.18%) and university or academic institutions (9.09%), with others providing for the training through in-house facilitators (which in the case of MNEs, may be conducted at the headquarters in the home countries).

Types of Training Provided. On the central questions of the study, the training provision and training needs for successful deployment of managers, it was found that a majority of the companies (53.72%) were providing some form of training for overseas assignment; 46.23% did not provide any training. The types of training programs provided are listed in Table 2 below:

Table 2. Types of Training Programs Offered

Type of Training Program	Percentage of Companies
Cross-cultural	16.81
Orientation	37.82
Language	21.00
Family Adjustment	6.72
Others(including on job training, skills and technical training	17.65

The companies were also asked about the relative importance of each of the three types of training to the success of overseas assignment prescribed by the literature - pre-departure, post arrival and repatriation training. The importance attributed to the different types of training is

shown in Table 3 below. It would appear from Table 3 that pre-departure training is rated as more important and repatriation training being lesser important.

Table 3. Importance of Different Types of Training Programmes

Training Programmes	Mean*	Standard Deviation	Percentage of Companies
Pre-Departure Training	3.34	0.73	92.08%
Post-Arrival Training	3.06	0.70	91.36%
Repatriation Training	2.26	0.84	87.76%

(* 4 = Most Important and 1 = Least Important)

Specific Training Needs. In ascertaining the training needs of the participating companies, the questionnaire included to determine the importance attributed to the list of functional management areas, the companies rated General Management as the most important area and Socio-cultural Issues was ranked fifth.; the ranking of the rest of the functional management areas is depicted below in Table 4:

Table 4. Ranking of The Functional Management Areas in Terms of Training Needs Importance

Functional Management Areas	Rank	Percentage of Companies
General Management	1	35.2
Human Resource and Labour	2	23.0
Legal and Environmental	3	22.2
Production and Technology	4	16.0
Socio-cultural	5	16.0
Accounting, Finance and Tax	6	16.7
Marketing	7	20.3

Each of the functional management areas were expanded upon with a series of questions that sought insight on the specific aspects of each functional management area deemed important by the companies, who rated them on a 4 point scale. The findings are extremely relevant as they would provide guidance to the HRD professionals in their design of training programs. Further, they would be of use to other companies, who may wish to send employees overseas and wish to prepare training programs, as the responses are from companies, a majority of which have existing experience with overseas assignment. However, for this paper, the authors decided to present the findings on the two top ranked areas, and the two areas that were surprisingly ranked as less important (Socio-cultural Issues and Marketing). The rating of the various aspects of General Management and Human Resource and Labor are shown in Tables 5 and 6; and the rating of the various aspects of Socio-cultural issues and Marketing are shown in Tables 7 and 8.

Table 5. Training Needs Importance: General Management Issues

General Management Issues (Arranged in order of importance)	Mean*	Standard Deviation	Percentage of Companies
Coping with different business philosophies/ practices	3.32	0.70	95.68%
Familiarity with economic system & industry structure	3.21	0.74	96.4%
Familiarity with political system	2.79	0.75	95.68%
Managing geographically dispersed operations	2.77	0.91	92.08%

(* 4 = Most Important and 1 = Least Important)

Table 6. Training Needs Importance: Human Resource and Labor Issues

Human Resource and Labour Issues (Arranged in order of importance)	Mean*	Standard Deviation	Percentage of Companies
Dealing with compensation/remuneration issues	3.15	0.75	94.24
Multicultural team building process	3.06	0.68	93.52
Recruitment and selection procedures	3.05	0.83	94.96
Dealing with disciplinary matters	3.05	0.69	94.96
Reward and recognition system	3.02	0.64	94.24
Employee training & development process overseas	2.99	0.65	94.96
Dealing with unions	2.97	0.81	93.52

(* 4 = Most Important and 1 = Least Important)

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It can be seen from Table 5 that in the area of General Management Issues, two aspects rated as important are coping with business philosophies or practices, and familiarity with economic systems and industry structure. In the area of Human Resource and Labor Issues, almost all the aspects were rated as important(See Table 6). Of the Socio-cultural issues(See Table 7), knowledge of business ethics or manners and customs, knowledge of language, and coping with family adjustment issues were rated as more important than others. In the Marketing area(See Table 8), none of the issues were rated more important considering the mean scores.

Table 7. Training Needs Importance: Socio-cultural Issues

Socio-cultural Issues (Arranged in order of importance)	Mean*	Standard Deviation	Percentage of Companies
Knowledge of business ethics/manners & customs	3.45	0.63	95.68
Knowledge of language	3.14	0.68	95.68
Coping with family adjustment issues	3.09	0.83	93.52
Dealing with religious and sensitive ethnic issues	2.95	0.80	94.96
Knowledge of non-verbal communication (body language)	2.66	0.75	95.68
Knowledge of education system	2.37	0.71	94.24

(* 4 = Most Important and 1 = Least Important)

Table 8. Training Needs Importance: Marketing

Marketing Issues (Arranged in order of importance)	Mean*	Standard Deviation	Percentage of Companies
Dealing with tariff and non-tariff barriers	2.92	0.80	90.64
Handling product modification issues for foreign acceptability	2.85	0.76	89.2
Knowledge of marketing research practice & information sources	2.79	0.76	92.08
Dealing with price control policies & cartel situations	2.78	0.84	89.2
Dealing with foreign trade mark & Patent regulations	2.74	0.81	89.92
Dealing with foreign media & advertising regulations	2.47	0.83	91.36

(* 4 = Most Important and 1 = Least Important)

Effective Methods of Training Delivery. In identifying the effective methods of training delivery it was found that lecture or classroom training was the most preferred method of delivery for all the functional management areas. Other preferred methods of training delivery were: workshop/symposia for General Management Issues, Human Resource and Labor, Marketing and Accounting, Finance and Tax; field trips or site visits for Socio-cultural issues and Production and Technology; seminar/conference for Legal and Environmental Issues.

It would appear from Table 9 that where the training involves functional management areas which are less technical in nature, the preferred method of training delivery is the lecture/ classroom teaching. This preference can be seen in the areas of General Management, Accounting, Finance and Tax, and Legal and Environment. The exception appears to be only in the area of Production and Technology where workshops/symposia was the most preferred method which may be explained by the need for interactive discussions on new technology or designs. In areas that involve less technical content such as Socio-cultural and Human Resource and Labor the lecture/classroom method of training delivery was closely followed by others such as field trips, seminars and case study analysis.

Table 9. Effective Training Methods for Each Functional Management Area

Functional Management Areas	Top Three Training Methods	Percentage of Companies
General Management	(1) Lecture/Classroom training	32.4
	(2) Workshops/Symposia	23.0
	(3) Seminar/Conference	19.4
Socio-cultural	(1) Lecture/Classroom training	25.9
	(2) Field trips/site visits	23.7
	(3) Seminar/Conference	17.3
Human Resource and Labour	(1) Lecture/Classroom training	28.8
	(2) Workshops/Symposia	25.9
	(3) Case Study/Analysis	23.7
Accounting, Finance and Tax	(1) Lecture/Classroom training	45.3
	(2) Workshops/Symposia Seminar/Conference	20.9
	(3) Case Study/Analysis	12.9
Production and Technology	(1) Workshops/Symposia	31.7
	(2) Field trips/Site visits	28.8
	(3) Lecture/Classroom training	19.4
Marketing	(1) Seminar/Conference	28.8
	(2) Workshops/Symposia	22.3
	(3) Field trips/Site visits	21.6
Legal and Environmental	(1) Lecture/Classroom training	37.4
	(2) Seminar/Conference	26.6
	(3) Case Study/Analysis Workshops/Symposia	13.7

MNEs versus Local Companies. The authors conducted comparative analyses of the responses of the MNEs and the local companies to ascertain differences, if any, in their training programs and HRD strategies. It was found that there was almost no difference in the rating of pre-departure, post-arrival and repatriation training. The MNEs and local companies both rated repatriation training as less important than pre-departure and post-arrival training. More of the local companies (42.9%), surprisingly rated repatriation training as important (that is 3 and 4 on a four point scale where 4 is most important) than the MNEs (34.8%). Through a comparative analysis of the companies' assessment of the importance of various functional management areas, it was found that the MNEs attached higher importance to Socio-cultural Issues. About 43% of the MNEs ranked it among the top three most important areas whilst only 29.4 % of the local companies ranked it among the top three. When the various aspects of the functional management areas were examined, it was found that the local companies did not rate the aspects very differently from the MNEs. However, in some of the functional management areas a larger proportion of the local companies rated a few aspects as more important (rating them at 3 or 4 on a scale where 4 is the most important and 1 the least important) than the MNEs. For example, in the area of Production and Technology Issues, 89.2% of the local companies rated dealing with local suppliers and purchasing requirements as important compared to 75.6 % of the MNEs; 91.9 % of the local companies rated general knowledge of logistic systems as important compared to 73.4 % of the MNEs. In Marketing, 72.2% of the local companies attached importance to dealing with price control policies and cartel situations compared to 54.5% of the MNEs. Almost 92% of the local companies also rated knowledge of the general legal framework and company laws of the host country (in the area of Legal and Environmental Factors) as important compared to 79% of the MNEs.

Discussion and Implications

Since most of the responding companies possess experience with overseas operations and, hence, able to provide effective judgments on the importance of various training needs and issues, the findings are relevant and useful for the formulation of international HRD strategies for expatriate managers. The finding that the expected profile of the prospective expatriate is only marginally inclined towards males with the rest being neutral about either gender is interesting. In a society labeled as Confucianist (Bond & Hofstede, 1989), a preference for males would have been expected as an overwhelming response. Furthermore, it would appear to differ from the experience in MNEs where the preference is for male expatriates despite the rapid increase in the number of female managers, women have made little headway in getting foreign assignments (Taoka and Beeman, 1991). Many women were turned down during the selection process for overseas assignments (Solomon, 1989). The reason generally given is the difficulty of acceptance by host country locals as a result of sex discrimination or sexist attitudes (Izaeli, et al, 1980). The finding that most of the companies provided training on an ad hoc basis is no surprise as the timing of overseas operations and the deployment of employees for overseas assignments, often make it convenient to stage training on a need basis.

It would appear from the study that the companies are using the managers for the three main reasons (often cited for using expatriate managers), namely, technical competence, management development and control (Daniels & Radebaugh, 1992). However, the training content (Tables 5 to 8 above) and the importance attached to pre-departure and post arrival training suggests that the key roles intended for the overseas assignees are technical competence and control.

The lower importance attached to repatriation training by both local companies as well as the MNEs operating from out of Singapore is surprising. This lower importance attached to repatriation may be indicative of a prevalent attitude among the companies, deeming the employees as important for the tasks assigned - specific overseas operations - and not considering their long term careers. In human resource development terms, this, if it is the case, is short-sighted as the training and development of human resources are crucial to companies and the contributions of the managers have potential beyond the overseas assignment. An alternative explanation is that the experience of the companies with repatriation has been favorable without any high turnover of employees upon their return. However, it is also plausible that since the companies are likely to be deploying Singapore nationals, there is less of a difficulty in re-adjusting to the Singapore environment as there are cultural similarities between Singapore and the countries of the region. A larger percentage of the local companies did rate repatriation training as important compared to the MNEs. The difference in the rating by the MNEs and the local companies could possibly be explained by the longer experience and tradition for overseas assignment among MNEs as compared to the local companies.

In their rating of the various aspects of the functional management areas, the choices made by the companies are consistent with the role the managers are expected to play in controlling operations in the recently opened and transitional economies in Asia. In the area of general management, coping with different business philosophies or practices and familiarity with economic system and industry structure are considered more important. Of the human resource and labor issues, the four most highly rated aspects are also consistent with the need to train the team that will run operations and at the same time consider the recruitment of host country staff (and the aspect of disciplinary matters can be of specific importance especially where corruption is rife or where countries are emerging from centrally planned economies, e.g. China where supervisors can find it difficult to discipline employees used to lower productive work methods).

It does appear contrary to expectations that marketing is not considered as important when compared with the other areas. Of the specific aspects of marketing (See Table 8), only the aspect of dealing with tariff and non-tariff barriers was rated being relatively important.

Although it would be plausible to conjecture that since a majority of companies are in manufacturing, marketing is less important as the companies may be establishing overseas operations to capitalize on cheaper labor and other resources, it is only possible to conclude that training in marketing skills may not be as important as other areas of training for overseas assignments. Perhaps the market conditions are such that no specialized marketing skills are required to sell the products and services, and that the companies are now enjoying conditions of a "sellers" market in the region.

Two observations are necessary about the low ranking of socio-cultural issues. This area was ranked fifth among the functional management areas, and amongst the list of issues, coping with family adjustment issues was rated the third most important. This low assessment of the issue is consistent with the early finding that only 6.72% of the training programs were on family adjustment. It would appear that a majority of the companies do not as yet realize what has been identified as a key reason for failure of overseas assignment - the family (Black & Gregerson, 1991). Secondly, the companies appear to be less concerned about equipping the expatriates for the impact of unfamiliar culture, and more concerned about the ability to adjust to a different business environment. Yet the manager's ability to adapt to a different physical and cultural environment is cited as the second important reason for expatriate failure (Tung, 1987).

On the comparative analyses, it must be noted that there were very few differences in the responses of the MNEs and the local companies, except for those differences highlighted earlier. The authors had expected that owing to the recent involvement of the local companies in overseas ventures, there would be disparities in the responses. However, this similarity in responses may be explained by the demographics of the respondents - 78.4% of the respondent companies have overseas operations (most of them are emerging MNEs); 42.57% of the respondent companies have established overseas business operations for five or more years; although 21.6% of the respondent companies did not have overseas operations, 65.52% of these companies have high intention to venture overseas.

Conclusion

Results from this study provide first hand knowledge about training needs of managers in the Asia Pacific region on the various functional management areas for their success in overseas business. This knowledge would help HRD professionals in formulating international HRD strategies in terms of planning, designing and delivering effective HRD (training) programs for managers to be sent on overseas assignments. This study has also succeeded in providing insights of the current HRD strategies and practices of the companies operating out of Singapore for their expatriates in the Asia-Pacific. It would appear that the companies are applying HRD strategies that are determined by a number of factors: the intended role to be performed by the employee, the host country conditions, the existing experience, knowledge and skills of the selected employee, and the knowledge and experience of the companies themselves in expatriation. The training programs that are ultimately designed for overseas assignments are thus an outcome of the importance attached to these factors and the perceptions within the companies. A company, for instance deploying expatriates for the first time, without experience of expatriation, and having a priority on the success of the overseas operations would attach greater importance on the intended role of the selected employee and, after considering the existing skills of the selected employee, place the priority of its training on technical skills and knowledge to equip the employee for the intended role in the host country. Another company for whom the individual, his family, and the host country conditions are deemed important might provide cross-cultural training and site visits. From the companies' responses to the question of the relative importance of different types of training, it is fairly clear that the companies' knowledge and experience of expatriation are an important determinant at present as the lack of experience with returning expatriates may be the reason for less emphasis on repatriation

training and for training in socio-cultural issues and family adjustment. A diagrammatic presentation of a conceptual framework incorporating these factors is shown in Figure 2 below:

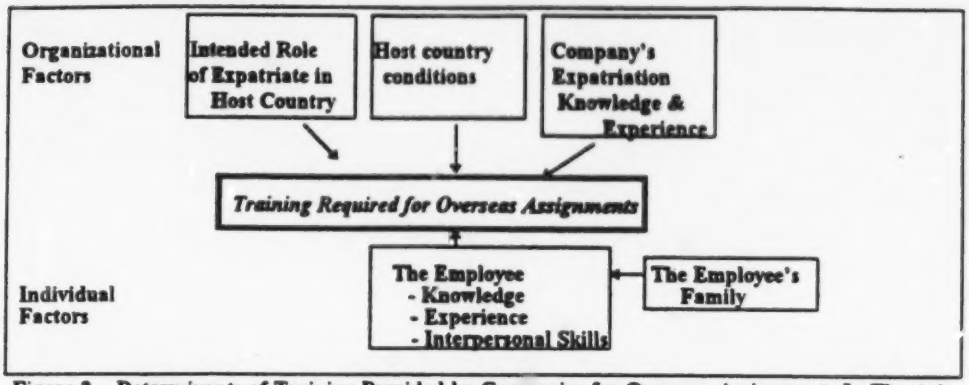

Figure 2. Determinants of Training Provided by Companies for Overseas Assignments In The Asia Pacific

The focus of this study has been on training. There are a number of factors that make for the successful acclimatization of expatriates to their host countries - training is but one. There has been suggestions that the spouse should be included in the training programs specific to orientation (Black & Gregerson, 1991). Another crucial factor, is the individual. In this respect, the selection criteria may include psychological testing to assess the adaptability of the employee; this would screen out the non-adjusters.

However, successful acclimatization of employees is of only immediate concern to the company. The success of any global company requires not just successful acclimatization but also successful expatriation, which is defined to include the repatriation and continued employment of the overseas managers in the organization. Successful expatriation of managers is essential to the international HRD process, which is required for the continued success of companies operating in the global arena. The training programs provided by companies for overseas assignment is one component of successful expatriation. Apart from training, the HRD practices and policies of the companies in general would have an effect, if, for example, there is an understanding among the employees that overseas assignment is a likely essential aspect of their career development. The organizational culture of the company would have an effect on expatriation, too. The individual manager would again feature as a factor but the scope extends beyond the individual's ability to adapt to an overseas adjustment and encompasses the psychological make-up, objectives, skills and attributes. This factor could be described as the "black box" of the individual. Further research would be necessary to examine the workings of a model that incorporates these factors: the individual, the organization's existing HRD practices, training for the overseas assignment of the expatriate and spouse. Based on the findings of this study and the review of the literature, a conceptual model is proposed in the following form:

$$S = f\ (T, E, I, F) \quad \ldots\ldots (1)$$

Where S = Successful Expatriation, which is defined to include successful assignment aboard, and subsequent repatriation and continued employment in the company.

*T = Training for Overseas Assignments

E = Existing HRD practices and policies of the company, which is defined to include the career development policies and present organizational culture of the company.

I = the Individual manager who has the required psycho-social make-up, ability to adapt to different cultures, interpersonal skills and other attributes.

F = the Manager's Family

$$*T = f\ (PD, PA, RT) \quad \ldots\ldots (2)$$

Where

PD = Pre-departure training

PA = Post-arrival training

RT = Repatriation training

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The authors intend to extend the scope of this study further into the neighboring Asian countries in order to examine the elements of the proposed models through the replication of this type of international HRD study. This might lead to the development of a general framework of international HRD strategy for the Asia Pacific region in future. International HRD is an emerging field where future research on various organizational issues is in high demand. As McLean(1991) mentioned, "the field is ripe, and ready to harvest." Attempts should be made in developing comprehensive theoretical models of international HRD by integrating knowledge from relevant disciplines as well as by synthesizing the empirical findings from HRD studies conducted (or to be conducted) at different national/cultural settings of the world.

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Russia and China in Transition: Implications for Human Resource Development (HRD)

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The transition of Russia and China from a centralized economy to a market economy is examined against the background of prior approaches to adult education and training. Russia's revolutionary change with the rejection of Communism, and China's developmental change through a socialist market economy, have different implications for human resource development. In both cases, the crucial element is the incorporation of the special strengths of each culture, as opposed to wholesale adoption of western practices.

> Cultural problems cannot be solved as quickly as political and military problems. It must be understood that conditions for further progress are no longer what they were. In a period of acute crisis, it is possible to achieve a political victory in war in a few months. But it is impossible to achieve a cultural victory in such a short time. By its very nature, it requires a longer period; and we must adapt ourselves to this longer period, plan our work accordingly, and display the maximum of perseverance, persistence, and method. (V.I. Lenin, Bulletin of the Second All-Russia Congress of Political Education Departments No. 2, 19 October 1921)

In 1917, Lenin anticipated that the successful Bolshevik revolution, which began in Petrograd, was but a harbinger of the future proletarian-socialist world revolution. Some sixty years later, Lenin's world revolution appeared remarkably efficacious. The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, long with the People's Republic of China, was foremost among many nations governed by an uncontested Communist Party; many other nations governed by multi-party parliaments had significant participation by Communist parties. Lenin foresaw that his various successors might need many decades before the worldwide cultural revolution they sought would become a reality--namely, the abolition of bourgeois culture and values (Lenin, 1920).

Now, more than seventy-five years later, a world economic and cultural revolution is indeed underway, but certainly not the one that Lenin envisioned. As we are all aware, it was the Soviet Union--not capitalism--that was abolished. Parliamentary democracies not only arose in Communist Party-led nations, but often outlawed Communist institutions as their first act. A Communist Party still rules China, but neither Lenin nor Mao would recognize how supposedly proletarian-socialist governments could so vigorously encourage private enterprise. Although they could not have predicted such outcomes for their nations, both Lenin and Mao could tell the leaders of the new global economy that revolutions, especially as they require changes in a people's cultural experience and values, are neither easy nor quick to succeed.

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The Turbulent 21st Century

The new and different type of changes affecting corporations and governments today will continue into the next century. In the past, Western corporations relied primarily on implementing innovations on the basis of past experiences and/or trial and error. Successful practices were retained and modified. This approach to corporate leadership emphasized continuity and served market-driven economies. Today an economic revolution is occurring. Drucker (1993) predicted that economic relations will be established among trading nations. Through alliances, companies will become part of a world economy; there will be a radical re-structuring of companies; the current governance of companies will continue to be a problem, e.g. takeovers, employee ownership; and, finally, there will be rapid changes in international policies and politics. This later change is significant with respect to this article, because the Western nations have not fully dealt with the enormous changes in Russia and China as each moves toward a market economy.

Russia

The transition from a centralized economy to a market economy is not an easy one for workers in state enterprises to understand. In the former Soviet enterprise, organizational thinking began and ended with the collective, which was a social and ideological, as well as a structural concept. Lenin's early idealism and his vision of collective decision-making became distorted. Vlachoutsicos and Lawrence (1990) described the abuses thus:

> Lenin believed democratic centralism would promote the public interest by institutionalizing both central direction of the economy and local control over local management and conditions. Before perestroika, however, the gap between practice and policy was enormous; the democracy in democratic centralism had virtually disappeared. In fact, abuses of power were so wide spread that the public came to associate democratic socialism with Stalinism. A fundamental aim of perestroika is to restore to Soviet enterprises the latent energy of grass-roots participation. (p. 58)

This hither to neglected potential of the worker brigade and its promise for empowerment was one of the needs voiced by Soviet managers in a human resource development (HRD) seminar for Russian managers that was conducted in Leningrad by Niemi in 1990. Using Miller's "force field analysis" (1967), the group of managers articulated the forces that would facilitate change and the forces that would impede change. The former included a high level of education among workers, their desire for learning and development, and their desire for participative decision-making. The latter included the abuses of power in a centralized system, lack of encouragement for worker initiative, and a system indifferent to change. This intelligent group of top managers, a high percentage of whom had been engineers, was able to discern the potential conflicts, as well as deep-seated belief contradictions inherent in centralized control that prevented the socialist system from achieving its true potential. Although the managers knew little about the concept of HRD, there was a general belief that Rothwell's (1985) definition was particularly useful to them in making the transition to a market economy. His HRD definition was compatible with the managers' ideas concerning the transition. He defined HRD as

> any planned training, educational, or developmental activity sponsored by a work organization....It connotates the humanistic philosophy aimed at integrating the goals and mission of an organization and the personal need and career aspirations of each individual in that organization for the purposes of increasing work productivity and improving job satisfaction. (p. 15)

The managers further recognized that the change to a market economy would call for organization development, which would require HRD programs that could empower workers to become involved in participative decision-making and workplace learning. The implications of such actions would be line with current Western thinking about creating learning organizations. Senge (1990) described them thus:

> organizations where people continually expand their capacity to create results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together. (p. 3)

Adult Education in Russia

A major challenge after the 1917 revolution was the elimination of illiteracy. Onushkin and Tonkonogaya (1984) reported that, by 1970, the population between the ages of 9 and 49 exhibited 99% literacy. Opportunities for adult education were available to Russian workers through formal education (e.g. evening secondary schools, vocational schools, correspondence study in higher education institutes, and post-graduate education in institutes or higher education departments). In addition, a significant system of non-formal adult education was available to Russian citizens. The two most active non-governmental organizations were the Znanie Society and the people's universities. The programs of the Znanie Society were short-term, whereas the people's universities programs were long-term.

The Znanie Society programs often had two facets: the development of the Soviet personality and the dissemination of ideological and scientific knowledge. However, the role of the Znanie Society changed, as Fishevski (1989) reported:

> re-thinking of approaches to activities of the Society....to assist in the carrying out of a course of action to accelerate the socio-economic development of the country, the revolutionary reconstruction (Perestroika) of all spheres of life in Soviet society, and the affirmation in our country of an atmosphere of openness (Glasnost). (p. 16)

The goals of the people's universities were to organize longer term programs from 6 months to 4 years for middle-class and lower-class adults. Initially responding to cultural and general educational themes, these decentralized people's universities were expanded to include the "raising of professional qualifications and job retraining...." (Lee, 1986, pp. 346-347).

The success of both the formal and informal educational institutions has been judged by the high degree of participation. Hence, these systems should retained to meet the needs of Russian citizens as they move in the direction of a market economy.

Workplace Training

Although workplace training had been a part of formal vocational-technical education in Russia since the 1860s, a nationwide approach to vocational preparation was deemed necessary to achieve the Soviet government's goals for the development of industry in the 1930s. Secondary and post-secondary level training schools were established within the various state enterprises to provide both education and on-the-job experience. However, the events of World War II and the Cold War created an ever greater demand for a technically proficient workforce. Additional professional schools, many unconnected with a particular enterprise, were founded in the post-war period. Although enrollment in postsecondary vocational-technical education continued to rise, Russia's primary resource for training highly skilled workers remained the technical and pre-professional secondary schools (Wolansky & Bax, 1990).

The recent political and economic transitions occurring in Russia have highlighted the need to keep pace with rapid developments in technology, if the Russian workforce is to participate successfully in the world marketplace. Students qualified for admission to higher education in Russia enter universities, polytechnics, or special educational institutes. Those who seek higher education in the polytechnics receive excellent preparation for future careers in technical and engineering fields.

On the other hand, workers seldom pursue higher education; yet their need for continuing technical training increases in urgency with every technological advance. To this end, there is renewed interest in developing institutions and programs to provide vocational and technical education at the postsecondary level. In America, such programs are embedded in the HRD component of an organization or corporation.

Management Training

While the Soviet Union was still a political entity, centers that specialized in management training were established as a part of a series of initiatives labeled by the term perestroika. One such center, the Higher Commercial Management School of Moscow, conducted research beginning in 1989 to identify the values that constituted the culture of Russian management. In this study, Bollinger (1994) attempted to identify predominant cultural values. One important value is high power distance, or the perception that there is great inequality between an executive and subordinate in terms of power. Of the managers who were interviewed, 64% described their direct superiors as either paternalistic or autocratic. The implications for HRD training of managers is the need for managers to accept the concept of risk as they assume the responsibilities of developing products, workers, and markets in a market economy.

Another study by Holt, Ralston, and Terpstra (1994) stated that Russian managers conceptualize terms such as "self-direction" differently than their counterparts in the West, and that they place high value on peer group camaraderie and social conformance. This finding suggests that, in Russia, the HRD training of managers maybe sufficiently different. It may require the development of Russian management strategies and behavioral expectations that reflect Russian culture.

China

Whereas the Russian approach to its movement into a market economy is revolutionary because of the plan to change the system, the Chinese have taken a developmental approach by creating a socialist market economy, while retaining their Communist ideology. However, they, too, have decentralized their operations and abandoned the concept of state-enterprise-worker in favor of the concept of worker-enterprise-state.

In June, 1992, Niemi conducted the first HRD seminars in China in Chuansha County and Shanghai. At these seminars, and during his visit to the Shanghai No. 1 Iron and Steel Company,

he was told that the format of training programs had been highly structured, with its goals as the acquisition of content, or knowledge, for a current or future job. Today, the cadre (leader) is responsible for a new HRD role. These cadres told him that the new policy being formed at the national level encouraged new and bold experimentation. In fact, these very words--"bold experimentation"--appeared in Li Peng's address at the Seventh people's Congress on March 20, 1992. The purpose, he said, was to

> acquire new skill through practice and to break new paths...we should review our experience frequently, continue with methods that have proved effective, correcting ones that have proved otherwise, and solving new problems as soon as they are discovered in practice. In all our work and study, we should stress practical results and create solutions, guarding against formalism and bureaucratism. (p. v)

The extension of HRD responsibilities to the enterprise has created profound changes in the preparation and development of workers in the enterprise. Instead of conforming to a training curriculum established by Beijing, enterprises are beginning to design their own programs based on their particular needs.

Adult Education in China

The development of adult education in Communist China can be divided into four periods. Maorong (1988) described the first three periods as the developing period, the stagnating period, and the redevelopment period. In the first period (1949 to 1966), he reported that the illiteracy rate had dropped from 80 to 43 percent. The second period (1966 to 1977) was also known as the great Cultural Revolution--a time when adult education came to a stand still. In the third period (1977 to 1992), massive development of adult education occurred in the form of adult higher education institutions, secondary technical schools, staff-worker schools, and county-wide peasant technical schools. With increased emphasis on economic development, the need for a variety of qualified adults emerged. Any discussion of education in China must include a recognition of the magnitude of the population involved. Sredl noted in 1982, that

> each year, anywhere from 7 to 10 million students graduated from China's middle schools [equivalent to Western secondary schooling]. Millions more leave school without graduating. Only about 4 to 6 percent of the graduate students pursue further study at colleges and universities [including polytechnics]; another 2 percent have had some vocational or technical training. Thus over 90 percent of China's young people are untrained for any kind of skilled work and must be absorbed annually by a labor force already overburdened with unskilled workers. (p. 9)

Adult education was seen as a second system that raised the educational level of workers. To meet these enormous demands, China has developed 1,325 adult education institutions, including 835 workers and staff colleges, 265 teachers colleges, 172 cadre colleges, 5 farmers colleges, 4 correspondence colleges, and 44 radio and television broadcast universities. (Zhao, 1992) In effect, adult education was supplemental to basic, technical, and general higher education--a system that developed future workers. Adult education included correspondence study in higher education, TV broadcasting, evening colleges and self-study adult education.

The Bureau for Worker-Peasant Education is nominally responsible for adult education throughout China; but, in fact, th- range of adult education delivery involves a vast array of the

nation's resources. One such resource is the Central Television and Broadcasting University that is responsible for educational programming. Certificate granting equivalency programs are available for the primary, middle (secondary), and university levels. The regular school system provides these programs through spare-time, evening, and correspondence study. Local governments, industrial enterprises, and communes also offer such programs through spare-time study. Mass organizations such as the All China Federation of Workers, the National Federation of Women, and the Communist Youth League also support adult education, either through their own programs or through auxiliary support to constituents participating in other programs (Colletta, 1982).

During Niemi's 1992 visit to the Baoshan Iron and Steel Complex, self-directed learning was praised for its role in the continuing education of HRD personnel.

In the fourth period (the present experimentational period), profound changes have taken place at Shanghai No. 1 Iron and Steel. Niemi (1992) reported that

> the HRD program had changed from a highly centralized content-centered format that workers found to have limited application to their jobs to one in which workers are involved in all aspects of the program. The videotape [that he] viewed there illustrated the value of collaborative planning, focusing on problems or individual needs....the importance of the individual in the collective was receiving recognition. (p. 117)

Management Training

The foundation of management training in Communist China had its beginning with the preparation of the cadre (leader) for the peasant army to fight the Japanese and, later, in the Liberation War. Jixiang and Maoshenge (1988) defined "cadre" as follows:

> ...administrative or managerial personnel, as well as other professionals and technical personnel, who maintain the status civic servants within...working bodies...and public or government organizations at alllevels above villages and town or subdistrict in the cities. (p. 45)

Cadre education became an established system to train leaders for the government and party.

With the opening of trade with the West in 1978, came the need for a new cadre of entrepreneurial leaders. They are gaining knowledge and experience through the joint ventures funded by huge investments from other countries.

Implications for HRD in Russia and China

Russia's rejection of Communism and centralized planning in favor of a market economy has important implications for HRD. In its haste to develop Western practices, there is a danger that important cultural elements of the previous system might be lost. One is the concept of the collective, with its emphasis on the individual as a member of a team. This approach contrasts sharply with the highly individualized Western approach that fosters competition and seeks individual rewards. The second element is the present of many highly educated people in the workforce. A major problem that stems from the long history of Communist practices is a low level of worker initiative and motivation due to centralized control. This condition is unfavorable to the development of an entrepreneurial system.

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The implications for HRD are that these cultural elements must be preserved and incorporated into specially designed programs for workers moving into a market economy. It would be unwise to borrow, uncritically, other models including Western capitalism.

China's retention of the Communist system, while creating a socialist market economy, has quite different implications for HRD. This developmental approach allows for gradual change. Whereas the Chinese have a much lower level of education than the Russians, they have long experience with the cadre system that trains leaders. Also, the Chinese are gaining considerable technical expertise through the contacts with experts in joint ventures involving other countries. The Chinese government now recognizes the importance of HRD in an enterprise, as a process that would involve workers in new learning.

As both Russia and China undergo the transition to a market economy, HRD offers a fresh approach to learning for both managers and workers in enterprises. In developing HRD programs, however, a crucial element is the incorporation of the special strengths of each culture, as opposed to the wholesale adoption of modes or models from Western or other sources.

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Relationships between Organizational Climate and HRD Practices: A Comparative Study of American and Chinese Firms in Taiwan

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HRD receives much more attention in Taiwan in recent years. Either American or Chinese companies in Taiwan put much efforts to the field. Organizational climate is believed playing an important role with HRD practices. This study examines the differences in organizational climate and HRD practices in American and Chinese firms in Taiwan. The relationship between organizational climate and HRD practices also be explored.

One of the most important assets in a company - its human resources, has been receiving much attention in recent years. Human resource development, or how to optimize such resources in the organization, has consequently become an ever more important topic worldwide. HRD is a comparatively new field of study in Asia in Taiwan. It is just beginning to rise to the status of a professional field. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationships of organizational climate and human resource development practices in the context of American and Chinese firms in Taiwan.

Statement of Problem

Taiwan has changed from a developing country to a developed country. As a consequence, human resource development receives much attention in Taiwan (Chen, 1987). Human resource development is treated not only as an important organizational function, but also as a critical function to be performed in order to achieve success in a global economy. Organizational climate, on the other hand, is believed to play an important role in the field of human resource development (Kopelman, Brief & Guzzo, 1990; Lin, 1991). Many studies show that the organizational climate has positive effects on human resource management practices, which can bring about productivity gains (Dastmalchian, 1986; Pfluger, 1988). Researchers (Katz and Kahn, 1978; Mink, Owen, Mink, 1991, 1993; Morgan, 1986) also give credit to the open organization. One area that has not received much attention in the literature is the relationships between the organizational climate and HRD practices. Since organizational climates are culture-related, different organizational climates might affect HRD practices differently in different cultures. As yet there has been no research that has been done concerning differences in the relationships between the organizational climate and HRD practices between American and Chinese firms.

Significance of Study

Results may add to the current body of knowledge in the field of cross-cultural comparative studies in Asia. From an organizational perspective, the results may also provide new information on reviewing organizational climates, thus helping to achieve improvements in the breadth and depth of HRD practices.

Research Questions

This study assesses the organizational climate as perceived by employees at the management and non-management levels and human resource development practices in the context of American and Chinese firms in Taiwan. In this study, the organizational climate is measured on Likert's

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(1961) theory of System 1, 2, 3, 4 -- namely exploitive authoritative, benevolent authoritative, consultative, and participative organizational systems; it is based on his Profile of Organizational Characteristics (1977).

HRD practices is based on Lippitt's (1982) Human Resource Development Assessment Inventory (HRDAI). 13 criterion are included. They are relevant needs, clear objectives, accomplishment, uniqueness, flexibility, skill oriented, professional leadership, future perspective, value system, evaluation, information system, organizational support, and participant commitment.

The key research questions to be answered are:

1. Is organizational climate, as measured by the Profile of Organizational Characteristics, significantly different between Chinese and American firms in Taiwan?
2. Are the HRD practices, as measured by the HRD practices questionnaire (based on HRD Assessment Inventory), significantly different between Chinese and American firms in Taiwan?
3. Are there any correlation between organizational climate and HRD practices?

Methodology

This section describes research method. Subjects, instruments and pilot testing are discussed in the followings.

Subjects. A major weakness that has been criticized in many cross-cultural studies is the failure to control organizational size, technology and type of industry (Negandhi, 1975; Adler, 1983). A high percentage of the American firms in Taiwan are in the electronic and service industries. Therefore, to avoid the above mentioned weakness in this study, the sample will concentrate on American and Chinese firms in three industries: high-tech, insurance and banking.

For the purposes of comparison between two types of firms, the following criteria are employed to select target firms for this study.

1. The total population includes any firm that employed more than 300 people in 1993.
2. The American target firms were selected from the American Firms in Taiwan. Similarly sized Chinese firms in comparable industries were selected from the List of the Top 500 Corporations and Top 100 Corporations in Service Industry published by Taiwan's "Common Wealth" magazine in June 1994.
3. 15 American firms and 20 Chinese firms were selected at random using the above criteria.

As described in the previous section, only certain industries were selected as the subjects for this study. The industries chosen in the research were the:

1. High-tech industry, including electronics, communication, and information industries.
2. Service industry, including bank and insurance industries.

A total of 25 companies, 15 Chinese companies and 10 American companies, were finally selected with the criteria described above. Table 1 is the distribution of the companies in different industries. 40 copies of the organizational climate questionnaire were distributed to management and non-management-level employees in each selected company. The HRD practices questionnaire was answered by the HR staffs in the selected companies.

Table 1. Distribution of the Subjects

	Industry Type				
Company Type	High-tech	Bank	Insurance	Others	Total
American firms	6	1	2	1	10
Chinese firms	10	3	2	-	15
Total	16	4	4	1	25

Instruments. Two questionnaires are used in the study to determine organizational climate and HRD practices in the organizations. The Organizational Climate questionnaire is based on Likert's (1977) Profile of Organizational Characteristics. The HRD practices questionnaire is based on Lippitt's (1982) Human Resource Development Assessment Inventory.

The above instruments are in English, and only POC has been translated into Chinese. The Human Resource Development Assessment Inventory is first translated by the author, who is of Chinese origin. Then two translations from Chinese to English, are carried out independently by two people; a bilingual Ph.D. candidate, and an American who is fluent in Chinese. The Chinese version of the measurements are inspected in the confirmation and pilot testing process.

Pilot testing. A pilot study was conducted in Taiwan in February 1994. Six people were interviewed by the author. The six people included two scholars, two management level and two non-management level employees in different organizations. The six people were asked to review and answer the organizational climate questionnaire and review the HRD questionnaire. Three main questions were asked:

1. Whether the translation of the questionnaires is adequate and understandable.
2. Whether the questionnaire items are suitable for use in Taiwan? Are there any questions which should be deleted, added or modified.
3. Whether there are enough significant differences between the answers likely to be given by American and Chinese companies, respectively, in Taiwan.

Two questions related to control function were deleted from the organizational climate questionnaire after reviewing the comments of the interviewees in the pilot study. Most of the interviewees were doubtful if all the members in organizations would have a chance to know about the control function of the organizations.

Results

A total of 1000 Organizational Climate Questionnaires and 25 HRD Practices Questionnaire were distributed and collected during the period of June through August 1994 in Taiwan. There were 669 returned Organizational Climate Questionnaires and 25 returned HRD Practices Questionnaires. After excluding incomplete questionnaires, the response rate of the Organizational Climate Questionnaire was 66.0%. Among the 660 copies, 45.3 percent were male and 54.7 percent were female. Most of the respondents fell into the age group of 22-30 (46.8 percent) and 31-40 (44.2%). 61.6 percent of the respondents got the bachelor or higher degree(s). The years of service was broken into six groups. Among the six groups, year 1-3 (37.3%) and year 4-6 (26.5%) proved to be the most populous groups. Positions were broken into four groups: high-management level, middle-management level, low-management level and non-management level. 68.6 percent of the respondents were belonging to the non-management level. All the following results are thus based on the information given in the 660 questionnaires that were complete.

The ANOVA test was then applied to the data to test whether there are significant differences in the organizational climate (based on POC, including leadership, motivation, communication, decision-making and goal-setting) between American and Chinese firms in Taiwan. Table 2 shows the means, standard deviation of the scores of organizational climate questionnaire in the two types of companies. The organizational climate scores in American firms is 5.0265, which fell into System 3 (consultative organizational system). The organizational climate scores in Chinese firms is 4.5758, which fell into System 2 (benevolent authoritative organizational systems). Table 3 shows the level of significance was found to be at the .0000 level, with $F(1, 601) = 26.7638$, $p<.0000$ exceeding the necessary .05 criteria. Therefore, the null hypothesis of research question ! that there is no significant difference in the organizational climate between American and Chinese firms in Taiwan - is rejected. The scores of organizational climate questionnaire in American firms are significant higher than those in Chinese firms. Based on Likert's model, the organizational climate in the American firms is much more open than that in Chinese firms in Taiwan.

Table 2. Description of Sub populations - Scores of Organizational Climate and Company Type

	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
Chinese company	4.5758	1.0295	398.5388	377
American company	5.0265	1.0460	246.1570	226
Within Groups Total	4.7447	1.0357	644.6958	603

Total Cases = 660 Missing Cases = 57

Table 3. Results of Analysis of Variance in Company Type and Organizational Climate

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	28.7096	1	28.7096	26.7638	.0000
Within Groups	644.6958	601	1.0727		

Table 4. Description of Sub populations - Scores of HRD Practices and Company Type

	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire Population	51.3200	6.4402	25
Chinese company	48.7333	6.4859	15
American company	55.2000	4.1580	10

Table 5. Results of Analysis of Variance in Company Type and HRD Practices

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	1	250.9067	250.9067	7.7510	.0105
Within Groups	23	744.5333	32.3710		
Total	24	995.4400			

Another ANOVA test was performed on the data to test whether there are significant differences in the HRD practices (based on HRDAI, including relevant needs, clear objectives, accomplishment, uniqueness, flexibility, skill oriented, professional leadership, future perspective, evaluation, information system, organizational support, and participant commitment) between American and Chinese firms in Taiwan. Table 4 shows the means and standard deviation of the scores of HRD practices questionnaire in the two types of companies. The results show that the

mean of HRD practices in American firms is 55.2000; and the mean of HRD practices in Chinese firms is 48.7333. Table 5 shows that the level of significance was found to be at the .0105 level, with F(1, 25) = 7.7510. Therefore, the null hypothesis of research question 2 that there is no significant difference in the HRD practices between American and Chinese firms in Taiwan - is rejected. The scores of HRD practices questionnaire in American firms are higher than those in Chinese firms. Based on Lippitt's model, the HRD practices in American firms are better than those in Chinese firms in Taiwan.

To examine whether there are relationships between the organizational climate and HRD practices, a Pearson correlation coefficient test was conducted. The results show that a positive relationship exists between the two variables (Table 6). That is, the higher the organizational climate scores are (toward to System 4), the higher the HRD practices scores will be. Observe also that p= 0.4693, which means that these two variables have a moderate coefficient of correlation.

Table 6. Relationship between Organizational Climate and HRD Practices

	Cases	Mean	Std Dev
Score of HRD practices	25	51.3200	6.4402
Score of Organizational climate	25	4.7369	.4351

- - Correlation Coefficients - -

	HRD Practices	Organizational Climate
HRD Practices	1.0000	.4693
	(25)	(25)
	P= .	P= .018
Organizational Cliamte	.4693	1.0000
	(25)	(25)
	P= .018	P= .

Summary and Conclusions

The findings of the study indicate that the organizational climates and HRD practices in American firms and Chinese firms in Taiwan are different. A positive relationship, and moderate correlation coefficient were also found between the two variables. Am implication may be made from the above results: although organizational climates may differ in accordance with different cultures, open and participative organizational climates might benefit the development of HRD practices, in any culture.

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Decoding Cultural Knowledge: Cross-Cultural Implications for Performance Analysis

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Performance analysis is often complex and contradictory because of differences in cultural frames that shape performance expectations. The problem of conflicting cultural systems is enlarged when organizations cross boundaries and must consider the cross cultural implications of performance policies. This paper uses Sackman's (1991) cultural knowledge frame to organize a review of representative research. Comparative differences in work definitions and rules theoretically support variance in how organizational meaning and behavior are culturally linked.

International businesses clearly illustrate the cultural complexity of performance analysis as organizations cross national borders and face the differing performance perspectives of people in other countries and from other countries.

An anthropological look at the question suggests variance in how people reason about performance expectations. Reasoning patterns originate from definitions of work goals, processes and relationships. The cultural study of how people reason looks at how classifications are formed, what kind of strategies are used in forming concepts and what rules are followed in solving problems (Price-Williams, 1980). Spradley (1979) called this "concept attainment" and suggested that reasoning is culturally embedded in attribution theory. Attribution theory concerns the process by which an observer interprets the cause of an individual's behavior, especially in performance situations (Kelly, 1967, 1973; Sillars, 1980).

Recent studies suggest that employee beliefs about work are shaped by societal values, organizational affiliation, occupational/professional alliances, and functional positioning within an organization. Little theory-based or organizationally specific research has looked at how these cultural differences impact performance. Data are needed to support and enhance an understanding of cross-cultural relations (Adler, 1986), and HRD interventions (Hansen and Brooks, 1994). More specifically, almost none of the research deals with the fundamental aspects of work in transnational settings: that is, how people strategize, negotiate, delegate, and evaluate.

Cultural Knowledge

Culture and Reasoning. Cultural membership implies that a similar world view causes group members to reason and behave in a similar manner. Cultural beliefs drive how they make sense of information and interaction. The term "schemata" has been used to describe cultural differences in perception and to explain the existence of a framework for culturally organizing and understanding experiences (Colby, 1975; Rice, 1980). More recently, Sackman (1991) used the term "cultural knowledge" to explain variance in how organizational cultures and subcultures define concepts and rules for work processes and relationships.

Cultural knowledge as a set of workplace meanings selectively influences how cultures learn and communicate, that is, how they remember, interpret, and attend to messages. In turn, cultural expectations can cause one to misinterpret stimuli that are considered foreign. Rogers (1973) indicated that information communicated in a manner greatly different from what is common culturally often leads to a lack of comprehension or misunderstanding. This premise corresponds to adult learning theory, which considers the learners' prior experience as a key axiom (Knowles, 1980).

Cultural Compatibility. Most individuals are more responsive to organizational and local societal norms if they are compatible with their own cultural knowledge. It appears that the local

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societal culture is at least as influential as a specific organizational culture in influencing norms and employee behaviors (Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv & Sanders, 1990; Kopleman, Brief, & Gizzo, 1990). Consider, for example, the notion of "management development." In the United States, it is commonly accepted that anyone can learn anything given the opportunity (Handy, Gordon, Gow, & Randlesome, 1988). Thus, managers can learn and develop leadership skills through training (as evidenced by the plethora of advertisements for management training). In Germany, on the other hand, it is commonly accepted that leadership traits are inbred. These skills surface and are refined during one's youth. Thus, for the most part, that managerial ability is a skill one either has or does not have. Moreover, an individual cannot be "trained" as a manager. Instead, a select group of rising managers are first identified as having high potential. Their innate skills are then enhanced through mentoring or specialized training (Handy, et al, 1988; Hansen, in press). Consequently, if a U.S. company uniformly offered management development training to all staff of its German offices, it is likely that the staff would have problems understanding and/or accepting such training. Adler's (1986) comprehensive review of comparative and cross-cultural management research examines issues of cultural convergence and divergence and how they apply to the workplace. She found that organizations "are becoming more similar in terms of structure and technology, whereas people's behavior within those organizations continues to manifest (national) culturally based dissimilarities" (p. 302).

Adler and Graham (1988) found that people tend to behave differently with members of their own culture than they do with foreigners. In turn, people exaggerate their natural tendencies when they confront cultural differences in real situations, at times becoming defensive because they are protecting the integrity of their belief systems. For example, in organizational settings in the U.S., group meetings often evoke lively discussion for the purpose of shared decision making. In similar settings in China, on the other hand, meetings are leader led, and group members will defer to the leader's decisions. These tendencies are exaggerated when the two cultural groups find themselves at the same table, resulting in diminished effectiveness because they each tend to hold on to their own style of reaching decisions (Lindsay & Dempsey, 1985).

It also appears that culture is instilled from a young age and greatly resists dilution and change despite prolonged exposure to another culture (Shackleton & Ali, 1990). This refutes the notion that people become more culturally similar when they work in a foreign country or culturally different company headquarter sites.

Cultural Knowledge as an Anthropological Lens. Anthropological analysis permits an emic or insiders' perspective. This type of analysis uses the informants' vocabulary to determine how concepts are attained and identify resulting belief and behavioral patterns (Pike, 1967). Sackman's (1991) categories of cultural knowledge are an especially helpful analysis tool for investigating the logic of how cultures classify work rules and definitions. She incorporates attributional theory in a four-component framework:

1. The "what is." These are descriptive categories that provide a kind of dictionary knowledge designed to define and attach meaning to concepts.
2. The "how." These are causal-analytical attributions that provide directory knowledge for task completion and relationships and processes associated with change and learning.
3. The "should." This class consists of causal-normative attributions that offer recipe knowledge for improvements and repair strategies.
4. The "why." These are causal-attributions that provide a kind of axiomatic knowledge about causes and assumptions.

Evidence of Comparative Differences in Representative Research

Sackman's knowledge frame will structure the following presentation of representative research. These data offer evidence of comparative differences in work definitions and rules.

Dictionary Knowledge: The "What Is." One vehicle for understanding how people culturally describe and define concepts is to understand the interrelationship between language and thought, better known as the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis (Carroll, 1956). This viewpoint suggests that language not only reports information but that it shapes our perceptions of reality by developing classification systems to describe experiences and concepts.

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On the organizational level, an interesting example of cross cultural differences in definitions comes from the field of human resource development (Hofstede 1980, 1984). The term human resources (HR) is an acceptable term in the U.S. for issues related both to personnel and benefits, and to the development aspects of individual and organizational effectiveness. However, this term is considered offensive to the Dutch because it implies human exploitation and a view of people as commodities.

Knowledge of semantic and conceptual categorical differences can help explain and illuminate patterns for the selective retention, definition, and recall of organizational tasks and roles. For example, Sullivan and Nonaka (1988) found that Japanese and American managers categorized and conceptualized organizational situations differently. American managers were more likely to interpret situations as opportunities rather than problems and were thus more willing to "deal" with a situation and include subordinates in the process. Martin (1993) also found that cultures develop different definitions for what constitutes competence. In turn, these interpretations provide guidelines for judging one's own and others' behavior. Understanding the linguistic differences described in this section can help make practitioners aware of the various ways people in different cultures understand how people categorically define the ends and means of work.

Directory Knowledge: The "How." Sackman's directory knowledge provides a framework for examining how one works with others: (a) What are the work processes necessary for executing a task?; (b) What are the directions for working with others?; and (c) How does one learn to do the task?

Causal analytical attributions clearly drive strategies for task completion. Studies suggest that tasks are affected by the perceived pace of work (Angrosino, 1976; Hall, 1973; Malik, 1979; Shannon, 1976) and a sense of urgency and attention to time (Levine & Bartlett, 1984). It appears that the more industrialized the culture, the faster the pace and the more people pay attention to time. In technologically advanced cultures time is linear and is conceptualized as past, present, and future. Conversely, people in other cultures who may perceive time as circular think in terms of recurring cycles, such as the harvest season or the cycle of life (Hansen, 1993). Task completion is also affected by one's ability to deal with a number of different concepts at once. Research indicates cultural dissimilarities in the ability to problem solve by tearing down and reconstructing ideas and concepts as if they were parts of a puzzle (Hansen, 1993; Luria, 1976; Schribner, 1977;).

Each of the above-mentioned factors can affect a busy manager's ability to respond to quickly changing events and to weigh the numerous variables needed to foresee a broad range of possibilities and consequences. Cognitive differences also occur in task completion strategies between highly industrialized nations. For example, comparative studies of Japanese and American management practices in behavior and time-use patterns found Japanese CEOs to be more deliberate and more planning oriented than their American counterparts (Doktor, 1982; Ouchi & Jaegar, 1978).

Directory knowledge also concerns relationships. Cultures can vary in a natural tendency to look for similarities or differences in employees. Taylor, Simard, McKirnan, and Bellerose (1982) found that Canadian Anglophones looked for similarities while Francophones naturally tended to notice differentiating characteristics in co-workers and between the two groups before they saw the commonalities. The proclivity to see differences first may obstruct communication and the ability to find working accords.

Cognitive variance can impact relationships through negotiation styles. Brewster (1980) reported that the Japanese perceive "a constantly changing continuum of fine gradations" whereas Western negotiators see the world in terms of opposites and choose from a dichotomous set of alternatives. A Japanese manager, for example, is likely to give subtle and inexplicit direction to a subordinate or colleague. Perhaps this is why American (Willmer & Holden, 1987) and Arab (Elashmawi, 1990) workers characterize Japanese managers as being evasive, and they feel frustrated by the lack of clearly negative or positive feedback.

Individual versus team approaches to completing tasks vary culturally. Hofstede's (1980) study of cross-cultural variance in 40 countries found that Asian countries are more collective, whereas the United States is more individualistic. Brooks' (1992) case study research found that American individualism weakened a team approach to organizational learning and transformation efforts. Furthermore, Hofstede's work highlights the role of cross-culturally framed power differences in affecting matrix management and trends towards the delayering of management. Indians, for example,

find matrix management harder to implement than people from cultures with a history of lower socio-cultural power differentials.

Finally, directory knowledge can prescribe learning processes. Aranha (1983), for example, characterized the dominant Indian learning style as intuitive and global in contrast with an American approach, which is more analytical. In reference to learning about "great men," she suggested that the Indian tendency to view things holistically highlights one's personal qualities. Comparatively, Americans emphasize achievement by submerging essential qualities with a welter of details and situations. Hayes and Allison (1988) support the hypothesis that culture accounts for differences in learning styles. The authors used Honey and Mumford's (1983) learning styles questionnaire and Hofstede's (1980) approach to measuring cultural difference on groups of 195 mixed nationality, midcareer managers who were pursuing M.B.A. degrees at Leeds University in England. They identified links between learning styles and national cultures by studying midlevel managers from India, East Africa, and the United Kingdom.

Recipe Knowledge: The "Should" and Axiomatic Knowledge: The "Why." These two categories deal with cause-and-effect expectations. Recipe knowledge contained in the "Should" category describes expectations for the ideal situation and prescribes the need for change in current practices and assumptions. Axiomatic knowledge, the "Why," explains reasons for current cause-and-effect scenarios. These causal links are explained in terms of the organization's evolutionary history. Both recipe and axiomatic causal expectations are culturally influenced by several variables: (a) environmental sensitivity, (b) flexibility, and (c) closure needs.

Cultures vary to the extent that their reasoning is influenced by their present environment. Reasoning that is highly influenced by one's environment tends to be less abstract. The Japanese are an example of an environmentally sensitive culture. Conversely, American reasoning is more abstract and linked less to its environment. Doktor (1982) researched causality in his study of Japanese and American corporate behavior by identifying "cause maps" that people use to interpret the behavioral rationale and motives of others. He found that "The Japanese concept of causality is highly sensitive to environmental contexts and relationships; whereas Westerners perceive causation as a response to the action of one or more prior events" (p. 32). His work suggests that Japanese rely more on specific, concrete data and, in turn, do not trust less abstract terms such as productivity or morale.

Bhagat and McQuaid (1982) also studied environmental ties as a key factor in analyzing cross-cultural organizational behavior research. They used differentiation, that is, how one's self differs from one's environment, as an operational definition. They found that relatively complex cognitive systems are more structurally diverse, integrated, and less influenced by their surroundings. Likewise, additional research found that environmentally sensitive individuals with relatively simpler styles perceive clear "beginnings" and "endings" as incongruous with the cyclic, continuous nature of life (Hansen, 1993; Rice, 1980; Worth & Adair, 1972).

Research in cross-cultural field-dependence is linked to these findings. Gruenfeld's (1973) work characterizes field-independent people as more achievement oriented, analytical, and discriminating. Glenn and Glenn (1981) took a similar comparative look at the cultural ability to think abstractly. People in field-independent cultures are also more specific in conceptualizing roles and tasks (Triandis, 1990).

Cultural flexibility can influence one's adaptability and acceptance of outcomes that do not exactly meet ideal or present causal expectations. Risk taking and an openness to new ideas and approaches are thus influenced by one's cultural sense of flexibility. Bhagat and McQuaid (1992) and Hofstede (1980) support the hypothesis that cultures differ in their sense of independence, fatalism, and flexibility when approaching new experiences. In another example, researchers found that Germans are more cautious and less willing to take risks than Americans (Hall & Hall, 1987; Hansen, in press).

Implications for Analysis

Evidence from supporting disciplines illustrates a convincing need to respect attributional differences in how concepts are attained. Sackman's description of how individuals logically acquire and organize cultural knowledge can guide the organizational analysis of performance problems. Researchers can begin by decoding the substance of knowledge categories, that is, "the what, the how, the should and

the why" that explain and describe work assumptions. Once a category's content is conceptually identified, its attributional origins can then be explored.

Categorical Knowledge. Analysis should first decode "the what" by categorically describing performance concepts and defining their properties. Researchers can identify the range and kinds of performance issues (and their related subsets) that are important within a given culture. Analysts should look for dictionary knowledge about organizational purposes, members, strategies, and structures. Cultural anthropologists begin their data coding with similar concept-sorting strategies (Spradley, 1979). Performance categories can be defined by examining relevant properties such as frequency of occurrence, organizational importance, and duration.

Once performance issues have been sorted, practitioners should collect dictionary data about related areas of task accomplishment, associated people relations, adaptations and changes, and learning mechanisms. This information reveals the conditions, that is, "the how" processes are executed and should be collected at all hierarchal levels.

Cause-and-effect data can be added to the analysis of conditional data. Information about causes and consequences are associated with recipe knowledge, "the should," and axiomatic knowledge, "the why." Recipe knowledge reveals ideas about desired changes while axiomatic knowledge explains the rationale that drives causal expectations. Information about the latter is generally harder to obtain. Most people are not consciously aware of the evolutionary history of their beliefs or the attributional biases that shape cultural norms.

Attributional Origins. Cultural knowledge is conveyed and, in part, conceived by the local language. Likewise, work definitions reflect the sociocultural context of the national or regional language. Cross-cultural analyses must examine if and how word meanings conceptually vary between host and guest language. The cultural importance of language is reflected in current theories of language acquisition, which place greater value on cultural context than on grammatical perfection (Ommaggio, 1986). In fact, proficiency ratings as defined by the United States Department of State weigh grammatical error as equal to cultural context at levels equivalent to near-native speaking (Ommaggio, 1986, p. 18).

It is additionally important to look for cultural variance in reasoning patterns related to time perception, environmental dependence, and causality models. For example, different time constructs may reflect variance in goal orientations, prioritization, and problem-solving. Likewise, expectations for risk tolerance and the need for definitive outcomes can, in part, be attributed to linear causality models that require clear beginnings and endings. Moreover, cognitive styles that emphasize a collective rather than an individual locus of control can affect collaboration and teamwork. Trainees can be made aware of these principles and how they influence the organization and origin of cultural knowledge.

Required Skills. Researchers who conduct cross-cultural organizational analyses require knowledge of and experience in the ethnographic research designs and analysis techniques that are used to identify cultural phenomena. Proficiency in qualitative data-gathering techniques such as participant observation, ethnographic interviewing, and the examination of cultural artifacts, which can range from document analysis to the analysis of employees' stories of workplace experiences are very helpful.

Also critical is a working knowledge of the local language. The degree of language familiarity will vary, and the necessary fluency will depend on whether researchers are collecting their own data. However, an understanding of linguistics and its semantical effect on concept attainment is essential.

Methodological Issues

As researchers collect information about a given culture, they need to attend to the methodological problems that confound an analysis of the cultural context of organizational and performance analyses. Concerns include disagreement about cultural parameters, and the need to pursue different directions in research designs and data collection methods.

Cultural Parameters. Clarifying the cultural frames that cause shared reasoning patterns is a key priority. Cultural constructs in societal (Kroeber & Kluckhohn 1952; Salzman, 1973) and organizational (Reichers & Schneider, 1990; Schein, 1991; Schwartz & Davis, 1981) studies typically reflect territorial, geographical, and linguistic ties at a specific point in time. However, cross-cultural studies and educational programs inconsistently define the cultural parameters and often presume that

societal and national membership are conceptually similar (Enz, 1986; Adler, 1983). The lack of definitional specificity confounds sample frames and the comparative interpretation of results. Additionally, practitioners often assume that nations are culturally heterogenous. In fact, Switzerland, the United States, and the former Russian and Yugoslavian Republics have a great deal of internal cultural diversity.

Some researchers have generated a definition for culture and cognition that supersedes the traditional boundaries of geography and national borders. Hofstede (1984) used the phrase, "the collective programming of the mind," to describe culture. Hamill (1990) defined cultural reasoning as shared conscious and unconscious patterns for manipulating symbols and arranging information. These classifications appear to reflect the more fundamental variables that influence reasoning. Thus, problems with cultural boundaries are driven by confusing cross-cultural and cross-national terminology, inattention to internal national variance, and the importance of variables that drive thinking patterns.

Research Design and Method. Qualitative techniques are traditionally used to research cultural norms and values, whereas reasoning patterns are typically analyzed through experiments. However, cross-cultural comparisons are constrained because of the researcher's inability to assure the required assumptions for control, equivalence, and generalizability that shape experimental models. In their analysis of comparative cognitive research methods, Cole and Means (1981) warn researchers about the complexity of cognitive study: "In comparative studies cognitive processes are even harder to track down because we really do not know what independent variable is being manipulated" (p. 70).

The attributional biases associated with culture and reasoning are influenced by a number of variables whose existence and relative strengths differ cross-culturally. Consequently, there is skepticism of inquiry that attempts to extrapolate broad hypotheses about reasoning from a narrow range of tasks that are executed in controlled settings.

Bhagat and McQuaid (1982) and Hansen and Brooks (1994) note that few studies of cross-cultural workplace behavior employ an in-depth, qualitative strategy, such as participant-observation, interviews, and content analysis, to understand phenomena "through the subject's eyes" (Pike, 1967). This trend is also found in general cross-cultural management literature (Peng, Peterson, & Shyi, 1991). Causal-comparative paradigms have been criticized for employing terms and concepts that were derived outside the culture and, in turn, yielded biased data (Marshall & Rossman, 1989; Spradley, 1979). Proponents of the emic/etic debate argue that informants view the world in terms of their own definitions rather than imposing the researcher's "outsider's" definition; thus, the latter ignores innate differences that defy and confound equivalent group comparisons. The inability to establish true comparisons counters the hope of generalizability of results to universal principles.

Clearly, careful attention to cultural context in research design and methods is critical. The issue of "cultural relativity" subdues arguments for a kind of "universalism" in developing formulae to explain comparative managerial reasoning patterns. Likewise, the difficulty of assuring equivalent group comparisons and control for culturally influenced task bias limits the generalizability of any cross-cultural data.

Implications for Theory and Practice. The role of human resource professionals is changing as they operate in culturally diverse settings both in the U.S. and internationally. This has implications for both the design of academic human resource training programs and for the practice of human resource development.

Academic programs must address and respond to the need for cross cultural awareness and understanding. Cross-cultural research and instruction have traditionally focused on community norms, leaving a void in our efforts to search for a rich and in-depth understanding of the intricate interactions associated with cultu and reasoning. More and better inquiry that is methodologically sound and attentive to emic cultural perspectives is needed to guide evolving training efforts. Such insight reflects the phenomenological perspective found in field-based, qualitative research. Enhanced research and teaching that help human resource performance analysts decipher the conceptual links between culture and reasoning can lead to better preparation for those who must decode the cross-cultural complexity of organizational behaviors.

In practice, the need for cross cultural awareness and understanding impacts the areas of training, career development, and organizational performance. In developing cross cultural training models, there should be an emphasis on the concept of uniqueness in describing a culture's reasoning

patterns. Training models designed with these considerations in mind clearly affect the assessment strategies used by human resource professionals who conduct front-end analyses. Moreover, these cross cultural issues are not limited to overseas ventures and they are, in fact, very much akin to multicultural and workplace diversity trends that increasingly affect domestic organizational performance improvement efforts.

Summary

The growth of overseas organizational expansion has directed the focus of this paper. Furthermore, these cross-cultural issues are very much akin to multicultural and work place diversity trends that affect performance improvement in domestic organizations. Enhanced research and teaching that help performance analysts decipher the conceptual links between culture and reasoning can lead to better preparation for those who must decode culturally different organizational behaviors.

Sackman's (1990) cultural knowledge frame offers a useful tool for both exploring representative research and examining how cultural frames influence workplace meaning and performance. Likewise, an anthropological lens provides the opportunity to capture cultural definitions from an emic perspective.

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Embracing the Humanism of Africa in the Practice and Thought of Human Resource Development

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This paper is a reflective study of two key issues the author believes to be relevant to the HR-HRD profession. The first, that the HR-HRD profession is at a significant cross road, a cross road that will bring with it the need for HR-HRD professionals and practitioners to find new answers and models of organization, management, learning and leadership. The second, that the need to incorporate the humanistic spirit of the African people into productive organization, a necessity being faced and met by leaders and organizations of the southern African region, may offer HR-HRD practitioners and professional a worthy lens through which the answers to these professional challenges may be considered and met.

The purpose of this paper is to explore the following propositions I believe to be true of the practice and profession of Human Resource Development, namely,

- that the Human Resource function within organizations is at a cross road
- that HRD professionals/practitioners will need to relearn skills and practices to stay relevant in the emerging organizational era of increased change, chaos and globalization
- that the emerging business sphere in southern Africa could provide a worthy and alternative lens for confronting the changes and challenges facing the HR-HRD field.

In structuring this exploratory research I have made use of the following methodology:

- to identify the *key assumptions* about HR-HRD profession that underscore these propositions, and to turn to relevant HR literature to establish whether there is evidence that might support these assumptions
- to identify what some of the *key shifts* (the "From's - To's") may be that are confronting the HR-HRD profession as it faces this cross road
- to consider the **emerging** *business sphere* in southern Africa as a worthy lens for confronting the changes and challenges facing HRD practitioners, and the insights this new lens may offer.

Certainly more questions than answers have emerged for me as a result of this research. These are addressed in the concluding section of this paper.

Setting the Context

It is my observation that an interesting contrast exists, in the nature of the study of human resources related issues, between the United States and South Africa.. In the United States it appears that there is more time to ponder the thoughts and possibilities of human resource issues. As a result much of the learned writings in this field seem to originated from the North American continent. In contrast, South African companies, because they are faced with the a struggle of survival on every imaginable front, are rolling up their sleeves and experimenting with many different approaches to the application and integration of human resources in business. Unfortunately the urgency of the South African business environment, and the need to bring about fundamental change very rapidly, has not lent itself to empirical study and writings on the learnings of these often very courageous steps. Hence, until recently, there has been a lack of related writings to emerge from this country.

There is, however, much mutual learning to be shared between these two environments. Together, new models, new possibilities, and new learnings will, I believe, begin to emerge that will benefit us all. It is from an attitude of "and, both" (White, 1992) that a valuable and

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transcending learning partnership can develop between these two societies. It is further my belief that southern Africa, too, has something of unique value to bring to the global party of shaping and crafting an HR-HRD practice that will be repositioned to play a fundamental role in the global business environment of the future. This is strongly echoed by Louis van der Merwe, an international business consultant and founder of the Centre for Innovative Leadership in South Africa: "Nowhere else in the world does the thinking from the East, West and North come together in a more fertile environment or in a situation where the urgency of finding new solutions to enduring challenges is as great. The practices, processes and tools that we test and develop here in South Africa will provide solutions which address our immediate and long-term needs directly. They will be a product of creative synergy between the best practices from the East, West and North combined with what is best from Africa. These solutions may provide a return on investment in other countries of similar need in Southern Africa and elsewhere in the world" (Van der Merwe in Lessem, pp. 243-244).

Key Assumptions

Underlying the initial propositions highlighted in this paper are the following key assumptions:

- that the HR-HRD (as an internal organizational function) role in the future is likely to be significantly different to what it is today
- that HR-HRD has an increasingly meaningful role to play as an internal component of organizations in the future
- that HR-HRD will have to undergo some fundamental changes to be able to play this new role
- that this new HR-HRD role will require new capabilities, values and behaviors from those in the internal HR-HRD function, and
- that those who can make the changes are likely to survive and take the (internal) HR-HRD function to new heights as a valued organizational member, and a meaningful and recognized contributor to organizational competitiveness, effectiveness and success
- that not all internal HR-HRD functions will be able to make the necessary changes to this new role
- that those HR-HRD functions that cannot make these changes are likely to be reduced to operational activities, removed from the core of the business, and are likely to run an increasing risk of being cut out of organizations, becoming targets for outsourcing, downsizing and window-dressing Affirmative Action programs, the latter particularly in South African organizations.

I would now like to turn to the literature for evidence and support of the above assumptions and therefore the first two propositions put forward in this paper.

Supporting Evidence

Starting with the assumption that the HR-HRD role is likely to be significantly different in the future the thoughts of two authors lend particular support to this possibility. The first is Patricia McLagan (1989). In matching systems models with future HRD issues, McLagan suggests that shifts in the work environment are causing us to "re-think our organizations" (p.62). In this process she further suggests that systems thinking offers a way of re-thinking our organizations and that some organizational processes "that have been allowed to occur haphazardly, but are key to future success, must become more deliberate and prominent" (p.62). "The development of organizations and their people is one such process", she says. "It must keep pace with and even help shape the pace of change and challenge in the environment" (p.62). McLagan very aptly describes organizations as "standing at the dawning of a new organizational age", an age that will demand fundamentally different things of its people and processes (p.1). She also states that "HRD and OD are becoming an acknowledged and central process in organizations today" (p.81). That "in the future HRD will undoubtedly become recognized as the competitive advantage of organizations...", but that although development will be key to this new role, it will have to be

tackled from a systems perspective, which "will be very different from what it is today" (p. 81). She goes on to say that "development is the key to success as we enter the 21st century" (p. 81).

The importance of HR-HRD adopting a systems perspective is echoed by Richard Swanson who perceives the "HRD systems bag to be short on tenacity and resolve" (1992, p. 214). He goes on to say that although HRD leaders "talk systems theory ... they could not punch their way into the bag of a systems practitioner" (p. 213). Although Swanson alludes to numerous pending changes in the HR-HRD role and practice, two key examples put forward by him capture this change in the form of challenges. The first being about "those in HRD who pursue diversity separately from high performance are in for a rude awakening" (p. 319). He stresses the importance of "valuing diversity with performance" as a possible ticket to excellence, as opposed to "valuing diversity without performance" being about a ticket to mediocrity" (p. 320). Another apparent hot button for Swanson concerning the changing role and skills of HRD practitioners is the issue of "ROI of HRD dollars" (1993, p.121), a skills which he reports HRD practitioners as having a "consistent aversion to" (p. 121). Although Swanson says that "HRD can be a serious business partner" (p. 122), he also underscores the need for the profession to focus on "core business measures" and the reality that it "can (only) become a legitimate contributor to the organization by documenting the ways in which it enhances learning ... when it regularly presents documented enhancement of performance" (p.123). He further highlights the "importance of HRD to individuals, organizations, our nation and our world" by calling for an "HRD manifesto"(p. 327), for he feels that "more than any other corporate function HR-HRD needs to be out in front advocating clear policies and making clear calls about human performance in the workplace" (p.329).

From Swanson to McLagan, Dahl to Haltshorn, Chalofsky to Passmore the message is clear: the times are changing and HR-HRD will need to change with it, will need to develop new theories, practices, techniques and methods, and find new ways of contributing visible, measurable value to organizations in the future. They will need to develop stronger and new theories, theories, Swanson says, that will strengthen, "build and maintain the psychological leg of the organization" (p.220), that will make for more purposeful and thorough analysis and interventions for organizational performance improvement. If they don't, they will have to "move out of the way"(p.123) of those who are struggling with understanding and improving the core business processes essential for future survival.

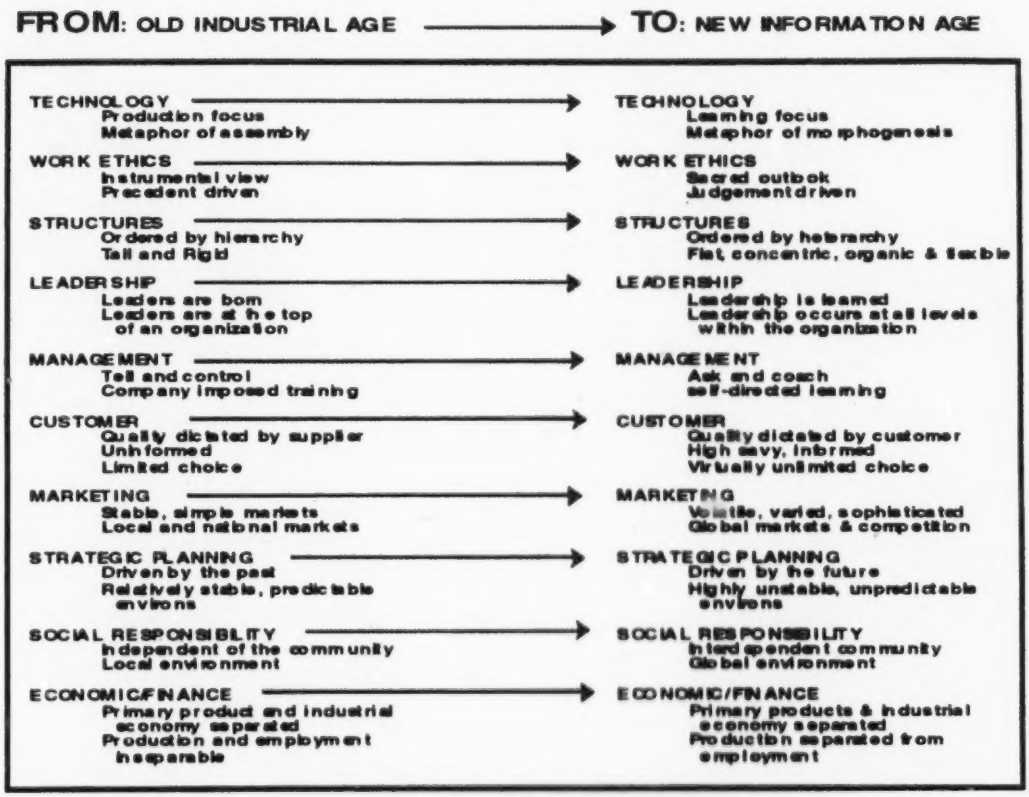
The nature of this change and challenge to the HR-HRD profession is also found echoed in a study on Human Resources Development as an Occupational culture by Hansen, Kahnweiler and Wilensky (1994). Their exploratory findings suggested that "HRD is a cultural entity that is more concerned with employee development and work autonomy than with overall business agendas" (p.235). They further reported that "people skills prevailed over business acumen" and that HRD practitioners studied consistently reported an "us versus them" mentality (p.263). They further found a "competitive undercurrent between HRD and the dominant (top management) culture, and concluded that "unless HRD tackles these cultural conflicts head-on, its strategic role will be limited, its energy will be diffused, and its importance as a change agent of positive organizational change will be minimal" (p.266).

It will be a sorry and unnecessary day should the function of HR-HRD within our organizations be reduced to such a minimalist role.

The Shift to a New Organizational Age

Numerous people have written about the shifts we are facing in our environs as we move from what has often been described as the Industrial to the Information Age (McLagan, 1990). This Age is predicted to be fraught with continuous, quantum change, increasing chaos, and the need to develop new perspectives to understand, make sense of and improve the functioning and indeed survival of our organizations. Peter Senge refers to the organizations that will be likely to survive these Age changes as "metanoic organizations"(1990, p.13) - organizations of a fundamentally different form and mind. Whatever they emerge as, one thing we can be sure of is that they will be of a significantly different nature to that which we know today. Another is that the human element in these organizations is likely to be of more significance than ever before, and the key to continued organizational performance and survival. The challenge this poses the HR-HRD practitioner and profession is enormous, and the significance of this challenge is illustrated in the table following.

Figure: **The Nature of the Age Shift facing the HR-HRD Profession**



Note: (Based on the works of McLagan, Dychtwald, Drucker, Harman, Senge and Keiser, Moss Kanter, Lincoln, Barker, Kuhn, Bridges, Daniels and Faludebaugh, Gardner, Asimov)

(Source: Lynham, 1992, p. 19)

The shifts highlighted in this table, capture, to some extent, the magnitude of the "Agewave" organizations are busy having to ride to survive into the future (Dychtwald in Lynham, 1992, p. 19). Each of these shifts will likely demand significant changes and new understandings, methods, techniques and theories from the HR-HRD practitioner and profession to enable these to appropriately diagnose and address performance improvement issues in our organizations of tomorrow.

Having found evidence in the HR-HRD literature to support my two initial research propositions I would now like to explore the third proposition, namely, that the emerging business sphere in southern Africa could provide a worthy and alternative lens for confronting the changes and challenges facing the HR-HRD field. By way of introduction I would like to briefly introduce the concept of the southern African business sphere, a concept clearly laid out in a recently released book called *African Management* (1993), edited by P. Christie, R. Lessem and L. Mbigi.

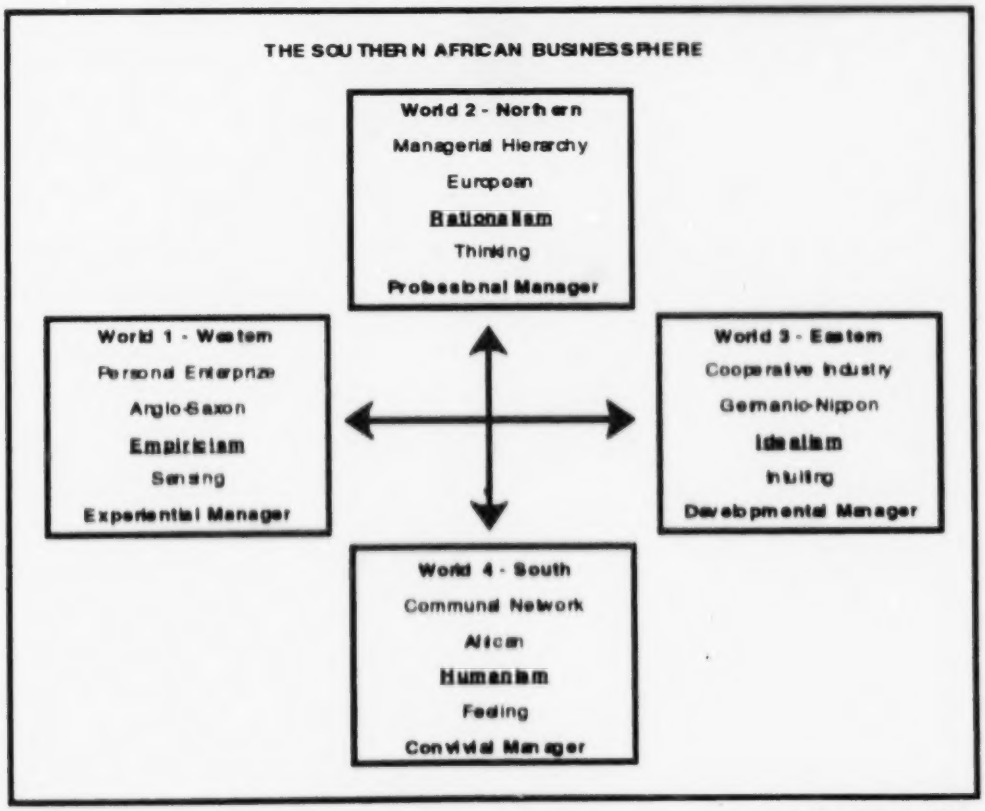
New Insights Emerging from the southern African Business Sphere

I have for many years contended that one could look at leadership, an area closely related to HR, from the perspective of a global compass, where each polarity of the compass represents a distinctly different cultural orientation and collection of wisdoms about leadership: the North representing the European, the West the American, the East the Asian and the South, the African cultures. Each brings to the party a unique and valuable wisdom about leadership. Seen

together these can help us synergize a more globally acceptable and relevant understanding of leadership. Seen in this context, the West brings the wisdom of the pioneering spirit of the American people and their command of technology, theories and new thinking to leadership. The North brings the wisdom of the past, tradition and protocol to leadership, while the East brings to leadership the wonderful wisdom of patience and the understanding that all things are interconnected. Africa, I believe, brings to leadership the wisdom of the soul, of people and of simplicity. I have never articulated this concept to anyone other than my colleagues and previous academic advisor, and so was both encouraged and excited to see this concept explored in the context of the Southern African Business sphere and a call for an integrated approach to African management, by Ronnie Lessem (1993). This work, together with that of Lovemore Mbigi and Reuel Khoza on the need to recapture and integrate the traditions, values and energy of the spirit of the Black African people in emerging African management, offer some interesting insights into the challenge facing the HR-HRD practitioners/profession operating in the southern African business environment. Although all three writers speak essentially to management practices and theories, one could just as easily see their target audience as the HRD practitioner and profession. I believe that the insights offered by these writers lend us new and worthy lens for thinking about and crafting the emerging HR-HRD role in organizations of tomorrow, be they in southern Africa, or abroad.

Lessem begins by introducing the possibility that the knowledge source of the southern African business sphere comes from four differentiated cultures and philosophies ... "empiricism, rationalism, idealism, and humanism" (1993, p. 18). He believes that each of these generic philosophies "have spawned diverse economic concepts and applications that precondition global activity" (p. 18). The figure below illustrates these four philosophies and accompanying business practices, temperaments and management styles and structures that are seen to dominate each of these four knowledge sources within the southern African business sphere.

Figure: **The Four Worlds of the Southern African Business Sphere**



Lessem, 1993, pp. 18-22

Lessem believes that only one of these philosophies, namely, that of the western market economy and its "derivative business practice of personal enterprise, has seen the full light of our economic day". "As for the other three", he says, "their time in only now beginning to come, both in theory and in practice" (p. 19). He suggests however that the "time has come to both extend and deepen our business and economic foundations" (p. 19). By way of further explanation of these four worlds, Lessem describes the dominant story and focus of the subject and object of each in the southern African business context.

Western Empiricism relies on factual information, experience or observation rather than on system or theory. "It emphasizes the practice of experience, especially of the senses, and relies on sensation rather than intuition, induction rather than other rationalistic means in the pursuit of knowledge" (p. 22). Key features of empiricism are seen to be the aspects of kindred philosophies, which focus on "pragmatism, and utilitarianism"; the unit focus being that of the "entrepreneur and enterprise"; the business outlook, which is seen to be of "competition, transactional"; the managerial orientation being "experiential"; and the psychological type that of "sensing and action orientation" (p. 23). Lessem points out that the "subject of southern African empiricism has been the individual entrepreneur, recently beginning to evolve in orientation from self-help to self-development", and the "object has been the independent enterprise" (p. 25).

Northern Rationalism "relies on the notion that reason is in itself a source of knowledge superior to and independent of sense perceptions - knowledge can ... be deduced from a priori concepts ... and is opposed to non rational emotion or intuition" (p25). Lessem sees the key features of rationalism as the kindred philosophies of "positivism and scientism", the unit focus of management and organization, the business outlook of "coordination and hierarchy", the managerial orientation that of the "professional", and the psychological type being "thinking, analysis oriented" (p.26). He points out that "the subject of southern African rationalism has been depersonalized management, which has not duly evolved from a functional to a structural one", while the object he sees as being "the enterprise as an institution, dependent on orchestrators" (p. 28).

Eastern Idealism is about "a conception of something in its highest perfection; a theory that affirms that mind, or the spiritual or ideal is of central importance in reality" (p. 28). The key features of this orientation are highlighted by Lessem as being a kindred philosophy of "romanticism and historicism, a unit focus of "industrial association", a business outlook of "cooperation and systemic", a managerial orientation of "development", and a psychological type of "intuiting, reflectively oriented" (p. 29). The subject of African idealism according to Lessem has been "developing individuals and associations", whiles its object he sees as being "the economy" (p. 31).

Lastly Lessem turns to *Southern Humanism*, which he describes as "pertaining to the social life or collective relations of mankind; devoted to realizing the fullness of human being; a philosophy that asserts the essential dignity and worth of Man(kind), relating to the arts of humanities, to the 'good' things in life" (p. 31). The spirit of Southern Humanism is captured by a quote in Albert Koopman's book on Transcultural Management: "I am, therefore the more I am prepared to give and share" (1991, p. 83). In the Humanistic way the key features are a kindred spirit of "aestheticism and naturalism", a unit focus of the "family group and social community", a business outlook with a focus on the "communal and networked", a managerial orientation of "convivial", and a psychological type of "feeling, concretely oriented" (p. 32). Lessem suggests that the subject of humanism has been the "socially and artistically based animateur" which has duly evolved from "matriarch or patriarch to social architect", while the object has been the "community" (p. 35).

The difference between the first three Worlds and that of Africa is perhaps best illustrated in the contrast between individualism and communalism. Unlike individualism ,where "The more I have the more I am", in communalism worth is symbolized by "I am, therefore the more I give" (Lessem, 1993, p. 36). In communalism "an individual emerges out of a group", "profit ... is a vote of confidence given by an individual's society for services rendered to it", "the more the communal person is prepared to give and share, the more respected (s)he becomes" (p. 36). A communal orientation is about cooperation and interdependence and the "greatest hope is for the upliftment of all" (p. 36).

Perhaps the best illustration of the spirit of communalism that is so much a part of the soul of southern Africa is through the philosophy of "Ubuntu". Reuel Khoza explains this as best being captured by the expression: "A person is a person through other human beings - I am because you

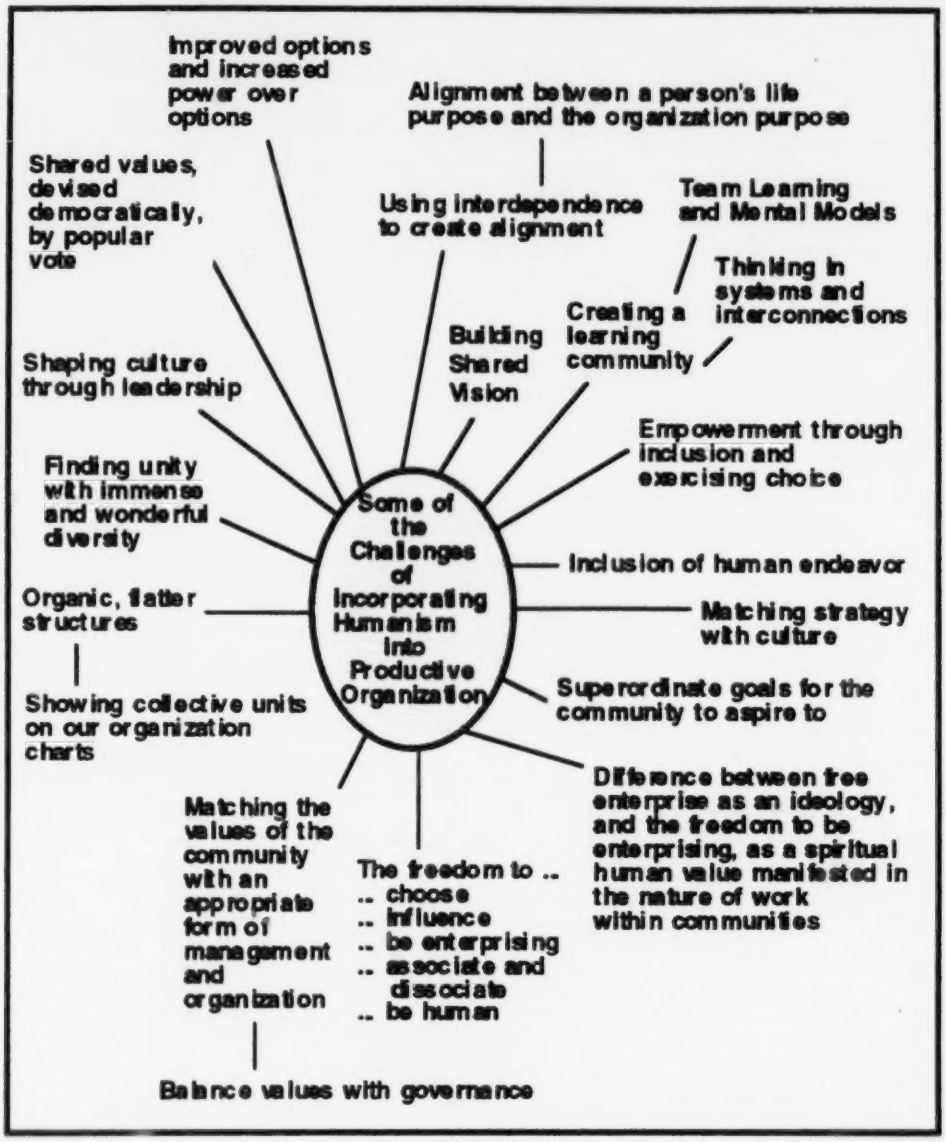
are, you are because we are" (1993, p.123). Khoza goes on to say that with "diligent cultivation" the concept of Ubuntu should be extendible to the business corporation. "Ubuntu as an orientation to life", he says, " is opposed to individualism and insensitive to competitiveness. Neither is it comfortable with collectivism where collectivism stresses the importance of the social unit to the point of depersonalising the individual. At the same time it places great importance on working for the common good" (pp. 122-123). Lovemore, Mbigi and Lessem all stress the need for business management in southern Africa to develop a spiritual base for it to become "a mature and fully fledged discipline" (Mbigi, 1993, p. 16). Mbigi goes on to say that there is a need to focus on "the development of authentic theories, philosophies and values to guide current business practices, processes and techniques", for "only then", he says, "can business make the decisive transformation it is being called to make in Africa" (p. 16).

In looking at some of the biggest fears my fellow South African colleagues have expressed over the past year, one of the most frequently aired is that of the unrealistic expectations of the Black Africans in the new South Africa. Mbigi offers another way for organizations to view and manage this reality. He very wisely stresses the need for organizational leaders to reconcile the creative tension between the "workers glorious vision of prosperity on the one hand and the limitations of reality on the other" (p. 80). Instead of the usual reaction of management and Human Resources to go out and dismiss the workers dreams as impractical and try to replace these with "more rational, informed and practical vision", he suggests the integration of these two tensions and the management of these towards the dreams of the workers. For if the African way is a communal way, then the fulfillment of the workers dreams within an organizational community is the same as the fulfillment of the organizations dreams. In southern Africa we will have to find ways to forge new management paradigms, where the "African traditional practices", too, can "become the basis for management and institutional innovation" (Mbigi, 1993, p.88). As Mbigi, Khoza and Lessem suggest: the challenges of management will require a new paradigm/mindset, a mindset "that will be able to balance and reconcile these existing opposites ... and that can synthesise these polarities" (p. 88).

Embracing the Humanism of Africa in the Practice and Thought of HR-HRD

It is concluded that the Human Resource function within organizations is at a cross road. HR-HRD professionals/practitioners will need to relearn skills and practices to stay relevant in the emerging organizational era of increased change, chaos and globalization. The emerging business sphere in southern Africa could provide a worthy and alternative lens for confronting the changes and challenges facing the HR-HRD field. In closing I would like to propose what some of the aspects of the humanism of Africa are that could help us in shaping and contributing to the performance of our organizations in an emerging, new organizational reality. These are illustrated in the figure following.

Figure: **The Challenges of Incorporating Humanism into Productive Organization**


Some of the Chalenges of Incorporating Humanism into Productive Organization
Improved options and increased power over options
Alignment between a person's life purpose and the organization purpose
Shared values, devised democratically, by popular vote
Using interdependence to create alignment
Team Learning and Mental Models
Thinking in systems and interconnections
Creating a learning community
Building Shared Vision
Shaping culture through leadership
Empowerment through inclusion and exercising choice
Finding unity with immense and wonderful diversity
Inclusion of human endeavor
Organic, flatter structures
Matching strategy with culture
Showing collective units on our organization charts
Superordinate goals for the community to aspire to
Difference between free enterprise as an ideology, and the freedom to be enterprising, as a spiritual human value manifested in the nature of work within communities
Matching the values of the community with an appropriate form of management and organization
The freedom to .. .. choose .. influence .. be enterprising .. associate and dissociate .. be human
Balance values with governance

(Koopman, 1991; Van der Merwe in Lessem, 1993)

The above figure is at this stage still a scatter diagram illustration of the types of challenges of human organization that companies of the southern African continent are faced with as they begin to reconstruct, develop and implement models of African management in their day to day practice of free enterprise. The answers to these challenges will have to come out of models that are born of the synergy of the best of all four Worlds. The essences that bind them together will have to speak to the human spirit and the Will of Africa. The question facing the people of these organizations will be how to form and orchestrate organizations that will both unleash this spirit and still remain of a high performance and productive nature. The answers that emerge will undoubtedly be worthy of global thought and study.

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As I was traveling through the recently released works of *African Management* (1993), the first book of its kind in South Africa, I could not help but think of the enormity of the challenge facing all southern African businesses, and indeed people. These are about the igniting of the soul of the human spirit in the workplace so that southern African companies, too, can compete and perform, and indeed perhaps one day help shape the world class practices of our organizations of tomorrow. As much as these are the things of management, so they will be the things of HR-HRD, and of the face of the emerging profession, not just in southern Africa, but in environs way beyond that. This lens can be used to provoke and better our understanding of the nature of a new age of HR-HRD practice and profession. For, in a way, the things that are happening in southern Africa are happening globally, as we as individuals, organizations, societies, nations and global citizens grapple with the difficulties of living as one community on planet earth.

From the southern African continent are likely to come some interesting new forms of organization, forms that will need to be systemic, communal networks that cut across the formal hierarchies of the many organizations, indeed that cut across the very essences of organizations as we know them today. The role of the HR-HRD practitioner in this context will be need to be one of social architecture and will require skills of human performance and process understanding that will likely serve the profession in a noteworthy way in the future. It will be wise for the HR-HRD professionals outside of this context to watch and learn from these emerging developments.

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